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The Bulletin of the American Association of Secondary-School Principals

Volume 28

May, 1942

Number 107

War-Time Policies For Secondary Education

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Reports of and proposals for war-time Serial Report
sued by national committees and commissions received
education to aid school administrators in operating
effective school programs.

NOV 19 1942
[Signature]

Trends in Secondary Schools

Descriptions of current and significant practices
in a number of schools and communities.

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Service Organ
of the American Association
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Issued Eight Times a Year

\$3.00 a Year

One Dollar Postpaid

Monthly, October to May inclusive

Published at Washington, D. C., by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Entered as second-class matter, November 8, 1938, at the post office at Washington, D. C., and additional entry at Berrien Springs, Michigan, under the Act of August 12, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage, provided for in Section 1103, Act of February 28, 1925, authorized November 8, 1938.





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By the *Committee on Occupational Adjustment*

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**June 28-July 2, 1942
Denver, Colorado**

**Program for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals
Meetings for All School Administrators**

Theme: SECONDARY EDUCATION IN WAR TIME

Monday afternoon, June 29

Joint meeting with American Association of Health,
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Topics to be discussed:

**A WAR-TIME PROGRAM OF HEALTH EDUCATION AND
PHYSICAL FITNESS FOR OUR SCHOOLS
THE WAR CHALLENGES THE HEALTH PROGRAM OF
THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

Tuesday afternoon, June 30

Joint meeting with the National Council for the Social Studies
Topics to be discussed:

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NOTE CHANGE IN MEMBERSHIP RATES

The action taken at the business meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in San Francisco in February 1942, changed individual membership rates for the first time in twenty-five years. These new rates become effective on October 1, 1942. To avoid misunderstanding, the Central Office will conform to the following rules:

1. Renewal of all memberships expiring on or before December 31, 1942, for which payment is received in Washington on or before October 1, 1942, will be accepted at the old rates, \$2 per year.

2. All new memberships received after October 1, 1942, will be entered at the new rate, \$3 per year.

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The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF Secondary-School Principals

A Department of Secondary Education of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
Issued Monthly, October to May Inclusive

Volume 26

May, 1942

Number 107

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**THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

PAUL E. ELICKER, Executive Secretary

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SUGGESTED WAR-TIME POLICIES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

These five articles immediately following,

THE BEST KIND OF HIGH-SCHOOL TRAINING FOR MILITARY SERVICE

NON-CURRICULUM WAR TASKS FOR MEMBERS OF SCHOOL STAFFS

TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND IN WAR TIME

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND THE WAR

YOUNG CHILDREN AND THE WAR

are the approved reports of committees that have been appointed by and working under the direction of the U. S. Office of Education War-time Commission on Education.

These reports were considered and approved by the War-time Commission at a meeting in Washington on March 25, 1942. It is recommended that the schools give full consideration to these proposed policies for secondary schools and implement such principles and policies as are applicable and considered advisable by local school systems. The schools of America are wholeheartedly devoted to a program of education that will give us a decisive and speedy victory and an enduring peace.

* * * * *

The Best Kind of High-School Training for Military Service¹

THE ATTACK on Pearl Harbor by the Japanese before war was declared, and the subsequent operations against the United States by the Axis Powers have brought about an upsurge of patriotic fervor in our country such as has no parallel in the memories of living men. Teachers and pupils in the secondary schools share in this enthusiasm and are asking insistently, "What can we do?"

Many secondary-school leaders have thought that one answer to the question would be to introduce military drill into the high school. Indicative of this viewpoint is the fact that the number of inquiries regarding military drill coming to the United States Office of Education has increased rapidly since December 7.

The reply which has been given to these inquiries is that the United States Army finds it impossible at this time to supply equipment or to detail officer personnel as instructors in secondary schools desiring to introduce military drill. While this is usually accepted by the schools as a reasonable answer it is far from being a satisfactory answer to young and enthusiastic patriots who want to do their bit.

Without prejudice to courses in military training already in existence it may be stated that no one should be disappointed over lack of opportunity

¹This statement has the approval of the United States Office of Education War-time Commission and of the designated officers in charge of training in the United States Army and the United States Navy.

to take military drill before he enters the Army or the Navy. The armed services are equipped to give him the necessary drill in a short time after he enlists or is inducted. For some of his training in other respects, equally important to his military efficiency, the Army and Navy prefer to rely upon the schools. Because of deficiencies of many of those that come to them, the armed services, however, are constantly compelled to instruct recruits in areas and subjects in which the schools are entirely competent to supply the training. In the pages which follow effort is made to indicate in broad outline the contribution which schools can make to pre-induction training. *The courses proposed are not a substitute for military training; they are military training in as real a sense as is military drill.*

THE NEEDS OF THE ARMY AND THE NAVY

The Army and Navy need competent, alert, loyal, brave, and healthy men who are able both to give orders and to obey them. No amount of technical or military skill can be considered a substitute for these essential qualities. They are produced through study and discipline, contact and association, competitive games and sports, and observance of the laws of health. The best agency available to American democracy for developing these characteristics in all youth has been and continues to be the schools, public and private.

The rigors of military discipline demand robust toughened bodies in a sense not required in ordinary civilian pursuits. The effective soldier or sailor is not only free from disqualifying defects; he is strong, vigorous, energetic, healthy, aggressive, and courageous. Work involving the large muscles can contribute abundantly to this objective. In the schools the physical-education program can be made to yield important results through emphasis on healthful living and beneficial exercise for all, boys and girls alike, as never before. The paramount importance of good health leads to the conclusion that every pupil should be given periodic health examinations with additional examinations whenever the need appears; teachers should be watchful of pupil health at all times to identify cases needing attention. Of equal importance is the follow-up of the findings of health examinations with the homes and social services to make sure that necessary dental and medical care is supplied, that nutritious foods are provided, and that physical defects are corrected in so far as possible.

Over and beyond this there are certain skills and information which are useful in the armed forces. Many of them are of great importance also in civilian life and should, therefore, not be denied to other pupils, both girls and boys who are ineligible to enter the armed forces. Some of the more important of these are listed below.

- A. *One group of activities is important for survival under war conditions.* Efficiency in these activities may mean the difference between life and death for the pupils themselves. They are equally significant for girls and boys and ought to be included in the school program for all pupils. These are:

1. Air-raid and fire drills with adequate instruction about the protection of themselves and their homes. Military values, as well as added safety, result if the drills are carried out with exactness and precision.
2. First-aid, home-hygiene, and life-saving instruction.

B. *Certain activities and skills are useful in the armed forces.* Because of their character these probably may most appropriately be introduced into physical-education courses although some schools may wish to develop special classes in them. Since the activities are designed to develop endurance and strength, a thorough physical examination should precede the assignment of any boy to this premilitary training program. A more generous total-time allotment than usually given to physical education is recommended. Necessary equipment should be provided, but elaborate facilities are not essential to an effective program; for instance, an open field may be substituted for a heated gymnasium. The armed forces fight under all conditions and in all kinds of weather, summer or winter. Given selected sturdy boys the activities should tax their endurance and skill, due allowance being made for their strength and age; hard soldiers cannot be developed by soft methods. The following activities are illustrative:

1. Hard-driving competitive sports and games involving physical contact
2. Swimming
3. Tumbling
4. Boxing and wrestling
5. Strenuous "setting-up" exercises
6. Hiking and pitching camp
7. Jumping and running
8. Skiing

C. A third classification may be made of *areas of information useful in the armed forces.* Much of the pretraining for military service under this classification may be achieved by changes of emphasis in the established secondary-school courses: more of the English for use, especially practice in understanding and preparing directions, dispatches, and accounts, whether orally or in writing; in social studies why we are at war, the historical background and the current changes in the war situation, what we must do to win the war, and the moral obligation of each one to serve country and community; in mathematics a nearer approach to 100 per cent mastery of fundamentals; in science the elements of physics and chemistry—these are knowledges and informations which the Army and Navy especially desire that their personnel should have.

In addition it is advantageous for each recruit to have specialized knowledge in one or more areas. Such specialization, however, should not be at the expense of a thorough knowledge in the basic areas

already mentioned. The pupil should be advised regarding the type of specialized information most useful to him by the guidance service set up by the school. In large schools special premilitary courses may be introduced. Differentiation in assignments, special units, home projects, and committee undertakings are methods by which a teacher may provide specialized information in any school, large or small, without having a whole class give extended attention to an enterprise which is of special significance only to some of its members. Some of the specialized information needed is:

1. International Morse code
2. Radio and telephone operation and repair, including transmission and receipt of messages
3. Automobile and airplane maintenance and repair
4. Machine shop work
5. Foundry work
6. Photography
7. Map reading
8. Home nursing (especially for girls)²
9. Personal hygiene and nutrition

The program that is here suggested for premilitary training in secondary schools stresses:

- A. Good health, physical fitness, endurance, safety from war hazards. In most schools these results will be achieved principally through the health and physical education program.
- B. Fundamental information and patriotic motives for fighting men gained through basic subjects such as mathematics, science, English, and social studies.
- C. Specialized knowledge and vocational skill useful in the armed forces to such extent as the school is equipped to meet the need.³

²This list can be materially lengthened. In making additions, however, the school should give consideration to (1) whether it has the facilities in equipment, teaching materials, and personnel to offer effective instruction in the specialized areas and (2) whether the Army and the Navy may not be equipped to do a better job in the specialized areas while the school centers its attention on instruction in subjects where it is in position to make the best contribution.

³The reader is reminded that this report deals with the programs which secondary schools may introduce in preparation for military training. For more comprehensive suggestions regarding what secondary schools can do in the war effort, the reader is referred to a report issued by the United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C. on *Secondary Schools and the War Effort*, also appearing in The February, 1942 issue (pp. 9-12) of THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and a statement *A War Policy for American Schools* printed by the Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Non-Curriculum War Tasks for Members of School Staffs¹

THE PROFESSIONAL and specialized training of school staffs may be utilized in many types of war tasks. Educational administrators can be of great assistance to community councils or committees responsible for local war activities. A community-planning council may be considered incomplete unless a representative of the local educational organization is included in its membership. A special council sub-committee, including educators, may be appointed to which all matters pertaining to education should be referred.

The training and experience of school staffs are of special value in influencing, directing, and leading groups as well as in other services where specialized knowledge and skills are essential. To use teachers for services that can be rendered without such training is a waste of ability. In planning teacher participation, school administrators should distinguish between assigned duties on the one hand and volunteer work on the other. Volunteer work performed by teachers need not be remunerated but assigned additions to teaching duties should be paid for according to custom. For example, a physical education teacher who volunteers as any other patriotic citizen to teach a first-aid class after school does not expect to be paid; but if he is assigned a schedule to teach in summer school as a continuation of the regular school program, he should be paid for the extra service.

SERVICES TEACHERS CAN PERFORM

Some of the activities in which the services of teachers are especially appropriate are listed below:

1. *Planning*—Serving on a community or neighborhood planning council.
2. *Instruction*—After mastering the subject-matter, teaching volunteer courses in such subjects as first-aid, nutrition, sewing, home management, consumer education, child care, emergency messenger service, Morse code, and health education.
3. *Teacher training*—Training other teachers (including retired teachers who want to render service) to provide instruction in such subjects as those listed under 2.
4. *Temporary professional service in registration and classification*—Assisting with selective service operations, registering and classifying volunteers for civilian defense, and assisting in assignments and re-assignments of volunteers.
5. *Leadership in children's activities centering in the school*²—Organizing and directing collections in which pupils can help such as books for men in service, funds for the Red Cross and U S O, Community Chest;

¹A condensation of a report of a committee of the War-time Commission: Edwin W. Broome, County Superintendent of Schools, Montgomery County, Maryland; Edna Van Horn, Executive Secretary, American Home Economics Association; and David Weglein, *Chairman*, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland.

and salvage materials such as paper and rubber; assisting in the preparation of emergency facilities in school buildings and training pupils in their use; organizing and directing the sales of Defense Savings Stamps and Bonds; and planning and supervising the dissemination of important information to the community through pupils and parents.

6. *Community organization and leadership*—Recruiting and supervising volunteers for emergency activities, in co-operation with Civilian Defense Council; planning and supervising recreation for service men and defense workers in co-operation with the U S O and local group-work agencies; planning and supervising discussion groups for those who wish to study the problems and the progress of the war; and planning and supervising services to meet the needs of an increased population.
7. *Consultation*—Serving as a clearing house of information and of referral to appropriate authorities in the community to those who seek help with their problems such as health, family, technical, personal, and social; and serving as a special consultant to individuals and to agencies in the special field in which one has considerable training and experience, for example, the home economics teacher on nutrition, the school nurse on health, and the social studies teacher on citizenship.

WHAT ONE CITY HAS DONE

The city of Baltimore serves as an example in its use of the special training and ability of local teachers in its civilian-volunteer program. Several days after December 7, the mayor of Baltimore appointed a committee on civilian defense which included in its membership the superintendent of schools. This committee divided its work into five activities: planning, enrollment of civilian volunteers, training of volunteers, public information, and co-operation with other agencies. The responsibility for training civilian volunteers was assigned to the Department of Education.

On December 15, teachers who volunteered to register civilians met together. During the next five days, 45,000 civilian volunteers were enrolled in school buildings under the direction of teachers and principals. Between December 22 and January 5, 700 teachers selected from 2100 who volunteered were trained by representatives of such organizations as the Red Cross, the U. S. Army, the Baltimore Fire Department, and the Baltimore Police Department. After passing tests, they were certificated to instruct civilian volunteers in the duties of such emergency workers as air-raid wardens, auxiliary policemen, auxiliary firemen, and first-aid workers.

On January 12, 1942, 3300 civilian volunteers began to receive their instruction. Classes, which ran two hours an evening for two evenings a week, were scheduled in twenty school buildings. A second group of 3300 civilians began their instruction on January 20. Industrial workers have been subsequently organized to receive instruction and 1400 additional teacher volunteers will soon be trained to teach additional groups.

²A comprehensive list of such activities has been prepared and was published in a separate report of the War-time Commission in THE BULLETIN, February, 1942, Vol. 28, pp. 35-46. National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Teacher Supply and Demand in War Time¹

PROBLEMS INVOLVED in determining the extent or imminence of teacher shortage are so complex that your committee finds it necessary to report several independent studies rather than to undertake to cover the many aspects of the situation in a single investigation. A shortage is developing rapidly, and existing accounts of its beginnings soon become out of date; hence only studies made within the past few months are reported. Immediate planning and quick action are highly desirable to anticipate future emergency conditions; hence the studies reported are relatively brief, and confined to essentials. More detailed data may be secured from the original returns from which the summaries are made.

SUPERINTENDENTS' REPORTS

To ascertain the extent of the shortage, if any, at the beginning of the school year 1941-42, a postal card inquiry was sent out by the Statistical Division of the U. S. Office of Education to each county and city superintendent in this country requesting data as of October 15, 1941. Of the total of 3,080 county superintendents, 987 responded. Of these, 130 superintendents, 13.1 per cent of the total responding, reported they had been "unable to secure 283 elementary- and 196 secondary-school teachers in their school systems. The secondary-school shortage was distributed as follows: Industrial arts, 54; physical education, 28; home economics, 14; senior high school subjects (not specified), 66; science, 9; and vocational education, 25.

From the 3,123 city school superintendents in places of 2,500 population and more, responses were received from 2,260 or about 70 per cent of the total. Of the 2,260 city school superintendents responding, 225, or 10 per cent, reported a shortage of 208 elementary- and 259 secondary-school teachers. The latter number was distributed among various subject fields as follows: Industrial arts, 85; physical education, 21; home economics, 25; science and chemistry, 14; vocational education, 44; and other subjects, 70.

The grand total shortage for the 3,247 city and county school systems responding to this inquiry was 491 elementary- and 455 secondary-school teachers in the 355 systems reporting shortages. The secondary-school positions were distributed as follows: Industrial art, 139; physical education, 49; home economics, 39; chemistry and science, 23; vocational education, 69; and other subjects, 136. Of the 491 elementary- and junior high-school shortages, more than half were in the first 3 grades; and approximately 60 per cent were in rural school systems.

Reports were also made by 264 superintendents concerning the methods used to meet existing shortages. The six most frequently mentioned methods were:

¹This was prepared by a committee composed of Herbert B. Swanson, Specialist in Teacher Training, U. S. Office of Education; Emery M. Foster, Chief of the Division of Educational Statistics, U. S. Office of Education; Mary Dahney Davis, Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, U. S. Office of Education; Frank W. Hubbard, Director of Research, National Education Association; and Benjamin W. Frazier, Chairman, Specialist in Teacher Education, U. S. Office of Education. (All of Washington, D. C.)

1. Re-instituting married women ex-teachers—84 (systems)
2. Using substitute, less experienced teachers—71
3. Lowering standards for teacher employment—37
4. Issuing emergency certificates—40
5. Increasing teacher load—19
6. Increasing salaries to retain teachers in competition with defense work—17
7. Discontinuance of certain courses—14
8. Other methods—20

REPORTS OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

In another study made by the Office, data were received from 47 state departments of education which brought up to date in November and December, 1941, a brief study made the preceding May concerning teacher-employment conditions. Many state departments do not maintain supply and demand records, hence the figures are indicative only. Nineteen of the 47 states responding, reported a shortage in one or more elementary-school grades or types of work. In about half of the cases, the shortage in elementary schools was confined to certain grades or types of work, such as rural-school teaching; and many shortages were confined to limited parts of the state. On the other hand, a surplus of teachers in one or more elementary-school grades or types of work was reported by nine states.

With respect to secondary-school positions, 38 states reported more or less of a shortage in one or more subjects. By far the larger number of the shortage was in vocational or special fields in which men are frequently employed. The number of states reporting shortages was as follows: Industrial arts, 13; trades and industries (shop included) 5; manual training and arts, 3; and vocational subjects (general), 7. Other shortages were reported as follows: Science, 12; commercial subjects, 13; home economics, 12; mathematics, 10; music, 9; vocational agriculture, 7; physical education, 7; art, 4; athletics (coaching) 2; library, 2; nursing 2, and a few other subjects mentioned once each. Several state officers anticipated later shortages. A shortage of "men," no subjects specified, was reported by 4 states. On the other hand, a surplus of secondary-school teachers in one or more subjects was reported by 18 of the 47 states, as follows: Social studies, including history, 14; English, 9; foreign languages, 13; and all secondary-school subjects except vocational or special, 5. Shortages were more extensive in at least six states in December, than had been anticipated the preceding May.

SPECIAL SUBJECTS: AGRICULTURE

A special study was made by Herbert B. Swanson, of the Vocational Agricultural Education Service of the U. S. Office of Education, concern-

ing losses among employed teachers in vocational agriculture in 15 states, representing each of the four administrative regions. The percentage of such teachers leaving the service between the close of the fiscal year (June 30, 1941) and November 15, 1941, was 17.3, a substantial increase over the year before. Of the employed teachers leaving the service, only 8 per cent became selectees. However, 33.1 per cent entered the armed forces, the majority as reserve officers. Government agencies took 29.7 per cent, commercial work 6.5 per cent, farming 8.8 per cent, and miscellaneous activities the remainder. More attractive salaries presumably were the cause of the loss of the majority of these teachers. In addition to abnormal losses of employed teachers, a much greater percentage of newly trained teachers are entering the armed services and employment other than teaching and fewer persons are in training than heretofore. Some steps have been taken to alleviate the conditions of shortage, which appear to be growing more serious. Regional conferences have been held, conditions have been called to the attention of National Selective Service officers, and steps have been taken to set up emergency qualifications for teachers. Some recommendations are for supervisors and teacher trainers to encourage farm boys and college agricultural students to prepare for teaching; to place part-time teachers of agriculture on a full-time basis; to contact former graduates in agriculture and provide refresher courses to qualify such persons for teaching; to raise salaries; and to contact state and local selective service boards to the end that the balance between the supply and loss of teachers may be maintained.

REPORTS OF PLACEMENT OFFICES

Although shortages in the number of registrants in placement offices do not prove that there are no teachers anywhere available, placement figures are of value. The results of a study reported in February, 1942, to the National Institutional Teacher Placement Association by its President Mr. E. W. Goetch, were made available to your committee. Some 170 member institutions of the association representing 40 states reported concerning 23,078 registrants available and qualified to teach. Percentages of teacher placement were calculated to December 31, 1941, by different grade levels and teaching subjects. A normal placement rate of somewhere around 85 per cent may be assumed for comparison. Placement rates greater than this were reported for the following subjects or grade levels: Rural-school teachers, all elementary grade levels except kindergarten, agriculture, home economics, nursing, commerce, industrial education, music, special classes, and a few others. A special section of the report indicated an undersupply of teachers in science and mathematics, and to some extent in physical education, especially for girls, in addition to most of the subjects previously mentioned. An oversupply of teachers of social studies and of English was reported by 60 per cent of the institutions. Placement rates were low in these two fields, and also in foreign languages, speech, history, and a few other subjects.

OTHER STUDIES

The findings of some earlier studies which have been widely disseminated, agree in considerable part with the foregoing. Among these studies is one by Francis J. Brown, "The Need for Professional Personnel, School and College Placement," October, 1941. This study, reporting data secured from superintendents, placement offices, and national professional organizations, showed a definite shortage of men in the fields previously mentioned, especially in music, health and physical education, the physical sciences, commercial subjects, mathematics, and certain professional fields in addition.

Another study was made by the National Education Association, Research Division, entitled "Shortage of Teachers Looms as Possibility in Near Future," dated November 1, 1941. This study reports placement data from 233 institutions, and from 34 state departments of education. There were reports of acute shortages in rural schools, and of shortages in small towns; but of little shortage in city school systems. Considerable shortage in elementary schools was also reported. Geographical and subject areas in which shortages exist were reported. In one case in three, higher salaries were being offered than during the past school year. Enrollments dropped an average of 11 per cent in teachers colleges and normal schools between 1940-41 and the present year. Twenty of the 34 states responding



—Courtesy the Kansas Teacher

There is a growing shortage of teachers in science and mathematics as well as other fields. Shortages are also being reported in geographical as well as subject-field areas. Educational leadership which can foresee and plan for the coming emergency is urgently in demand.

did not issue emergency certificates, or estimated that they would not issue more than 100 of such certificates during 1941-42. Seven states indicated that there was some demand developing for lower standards.

INCREASE IN SHORTAGES; EMERGENCY THREATENED

Every study made or consulted indicates that the developing shortages may be expected to become progressively more serious as the war continues. The demands for men and for women in war industries, in industries related to war production, government, the military services, and elsewhere is growing with great rapidity. Enrollments in teacher-education institutions have declined during three of the five past bienniums. They declined markedly last year. Salary increases are not keeping pace with rising living costs. Salaries in occupations that compete with teaching for personnel are rising much more rapidly than in teaching. Such salary increases as are being made are not distributed equitably in many places; for example, according to figures published by the National Education Association in February, 1942, 27 per cent of the cities of more than 10,000 population granted special salary increases or bonuses during the preceding half-year; whereas only 13 per cent of some 431 counties (including rural schools chiefly) made such salary adjustments. There is no indication that the limited number of public teacher placement offices operating on a state-wide basis are extending their services to anything like a sufficient extent to insure adequate distribution of the mobile teaching supply. What may be expected if the war continues is indicated by an official report of conditions during the biennium 1918-20:

Not enough even of untrained inexperienced persons could be secured at any time during the 2 years to fill the teaching places of the country. . . . In September of 1918 there was a shortage of 50,000 teachers, and 122,000 inexperienced ones were entering the field. Approximately 10 out of every 45 of all the teaching places were either vacant or filled with new people. . . . In June of 1920 there was no apparent way of securing 15,350 high-school teachers.

If the foregoing conditions prevailed during the short first world war, what is to be expected during the present war? Educational leadership which can foresee and plan for the coming emergency is urgently in demand. Plans should be made now, for considerable time is needed to put effective plans into operation.

SUMMARY OF CONDITIONS

Insofar as a wide diversity of conditions throughout the nation can be summarized in a paragraph, the following conditions can be stated. The extent of teacher shortage varies widely among and within states, and among different subjects and grade levels. The number of classrooms that have been closed to date because teachers were unobtainable is very small; but in a significant and growing number of places, classrooms are being kept open by lowering teacher-certification and employment standards. There is either an appreciable shortage, or a shortage that is developing,

in many parts of the country in rural schools, elementary schools in rural or small town areas, vocational agriculture, home economics, trade and industrial education, business subjects, physical education, nursing education, music, physics, chemistry, mathematics, and a few other subjects. There has been a surplus, in some places, of teachers of English, social studies including history, and foreign languages, and possibly a few other subjects. These surpluses are steadily decreasing. With respect to geographical areas, there is with exceptions in certain subjects, a surplus of teachers in many large cities, and a shortage of teachers in many rural schools, and in a number of small towns. The shortages are most marked in the states with large rural areas and relatively low salaries in the central and southern states. Although serious shortages most commonly prevail in the subjects in which men teachers predominate, shortages are developing in low-salaried areas in most teaching subjects and grade levels.

NECESSITY FOR PROMPT AND VIGOROUS ACTION

Every study made indicates that the shortage, now only in its early stages, will undoubtedly increase as the demands of the military services and of war production increase. If the war continues for some time, it is the reasoned opinion of your committee that the shortage will increase to an alarming extent and that standards may be lowered in such a way as to wipe out the gains of many years. It is not within the province of this committee to make recommendations concerning the means to meet growing shortages; but the committee does wish to go on record with the statement that now is the time to plan, and to plan for direct and forceful action; and that only through the prompt and vigorous employment of a number of remedial measures, can threatened conditions of teacher shortage and seriously lowered standards be met. All available means, such as increasing teachers' salaries, inducing married women and other former teachers now out of service to return to the profession, intensifying student recruiting efforts, extending and co-ordinating state placement services, removing arbitrary certification requirements and at the same time safeguarding essential standards, introducing refresher courses, and accelerating the completion of teacher-education curriculums, will be demanded to alleviate the serious conditions that are expected. It is not to be expected that the Commission will undertake to encourage the advancement of all of these methods and means at this time; but it is recommended that it concentrate immediately upon the advancement of those activities it decides upon as offering most promise at this time.

Vocational Training and the War¹

IN JULY 1940 the public vocational schools of this country gave quick and decisive evidence that they were ready to meet emergency defense and war-production training needs. Almost over night the vocational schools, operating on a peacetime basis and for peacetime-industrial pursuits, reorganized their programs. Classes at all hours of the day and night for all types of men and women have been organized to meet increasing war-production demands. Many modifications of policy and practices were promptly made to meet war-production-training conditions. The extent of the program thus developed has been made possible because of conscious attention on the part of the states and local communities during the past twenty-five years to the development of trained personnel and the provision of adequate building and equipment. All of the above is evidence that the vocational schools are war conscious and ready and willing to make still further modifications and adjustments to meet new war emergencies.

For immediate war-production purposes many skilled operations usually requiring skilled craftsmen or operators will be broken down into a series of operations. For these operations workers can be specifically trained in relatively short war-production-training programs. While emphasizing these short-term training programs because of the immediate and pressing need, the regular programs (Smith-Hughes and George-Deen) for the training and development of initial specific skills for the skilled trades must not be neglected. Both of these programs are essential to the war-production effort.

The retraining of workers dislocated from non-defense industries to fit them for service in war-production industries is a tremendous and pressing need in certain areas. The public vocational schools should, and will, exert every effort to meet this need to the entire capacity of the schools. This capacity should be expanded where necessary. The vocational schools are ready to extend this retraining on short notice wherever tools and housing can be provided for the purpose. The vocational war-production-training program should be expanded to the extent of carrying the training still further into industry for the purpose of utilizing more of the facilities of industry itself in a war-production-training program.

All vocational school equipment should be used to capacity so that every training station which will contribute to training for war-time production shall be in total use. All machine tools and other equipment suit-

¹A subcommittee report submitted by the Divisional Committee on State and Local School Administration to the U. S. Office of Education War-time Commission composed of Alonzo G. Grace, Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Connecticut; L. H. Hawkins, Chief, Trade and Industrial Education Service, and Director, Vocational Training for Defense Workers, U. S. Office of Education; John J. Seidel, State Director of Vocational Education, Baltimore, Maryland; J. C. Wright, Assistant U. S. Commissioner for Vocational Education, U. S. Office of Education; and L. H. Dennis, *Chairman*, Executive Secretary, American Vocational Association, Incorporated, Washington, D. C.

able for war-production training now used for industrial arts in junior and senior high schools and colleges should be made available for war-production training as needed. Idle equipment, like idle men, must be put to work. Additional attention must be given to war-production training of women, and this training adjusted to occupational needs and opportunities. It is expected that greater need for women trained for war-production industries will appear as the labor shortage involved in the progress of the war preparations becomes more acute. Vocational school equipment and personnel should be used on a seven-day week, twenty-four-hour day basis for war-production-training purposes.

In rural areas adequate provisions should be made for training out-of-school farm youth and adults to help man the "Food for Freedom" agriculture war-productions program. These provisions would include an extension of the present courses in operation, maintenance, and repair of farm machinery and the addition of courses to assist in the increased production of various farm products.

The home economics training services of our schools should be extended to provide information and training for both in-school and out-of-school groups in the conservation of food, clothing, and other critical supplies; nutrition, including the use of substitutes for scarce foods; and the adjustment of home budgets to war-time economy. Training for business occupations must keep pace with specific needs developing from newly created demands of war production for additional personnel in this field.

War-production-vocational training has a definite relationship to war-labor supply and war production. Hence, war-production training should be closely articulated with War Production Board Labor Supply activities, but it will continue to operate through the various agencies charged with specific portions of the training program.

Both the war-production vocational training and the long-range vocational programs should be under the direction of the U. S. Office of Education, with the additional assistance and direction of the special defense-training authorities, and should operate through the State Boards for Vocational Education and local Boards.

Plan to be in Denver
at Your Convention
June 29 and 30, 1942.

Young Children and the War¹

THE FACT that the United States is at war does not alter the fundamental principles of childhood education. It does call for a re-statement of immediate aims in terms of the present crisis. The War-time Commission seeks with other related agencies to guarantee for all children adequate protection, intelligent participation, and balanced perspective.

PROTECTION

Adequate protection of children demands:

1. Utilizing the experience and preparation of teachers.
2. Securing responsible informed leaders.
3. Obtaining suitable equipment, such as air-raid shelters, gas masks, and identification tags.
4. Planning for evacuation.
5. Preparing children psychologically to meet real and incipient fears through wholesome experiences, satisfying discussions, and drills.
6. Co-operating with parents in maintaining children's morale and safeguarding their development.
7. Providing nursery-school and kindergarten care for children under six as part of any plans for full-day care of children of working parents.
8. Providing educational and recreational facilities for all children in defense areas.
9. Expanding school facilities and services to supply lunches, summertime programs, supervised out-of-school play, and other recreation.
10. Adjusting school organization to meet child and community needs.
11. Recognizing that defense work demands good teaching.
12. Unifying school actions with home and other community agencies.
13. Maintaining efficient teaching and administrative staffs.

PARTICIPATION

Intelligent participation by children includes:

1. Understanding patriotism, citizenship, democracy and their symbols, through daily experiences.

¹A Subcommittee report submitted by the Divisional Committee on State and Local School Administration to the U. S. Office of Education War-time Commission composed of Rose Alschuler, Director, National Commission for Young Children; Mary Dabney Davis, Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, U. S. Office of Education; Harriet A. Houdlette, Specialist in Childhood Education, American Association of University Women; Frances Mayfarth, Editor, Association for Childhood Education; LuVerne Crabtree Walker, Supervising Principal, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.; and Mary E. Leeper, Chairman, Executive Secretary, Association for Childhood Education, Washington, D. C.

2. Discussing appropriate questions concerning the war.
3. Sharing the war effort through doing daily jobs well.
4. Developing health habits, and assuming individual responsibility.
5. Conserving and salvaging materials for use in defense.

PERSPECTIVE

Balanced perspective for children requires:

1. Sensing what America is fighting for by developing an understanding of democratic ideals through daily practice in living them.
2. Seeing that America's fight for democratic principles is but one part of mankind's long struggle for freedom.
3. Knowing the real values that war cannot destroy.
4. Understanding the necessity for personal sacrifices.
5. Understanding and appreciating others by stressing fundamental likenesses as opposed to superficial differences among citizens.



—Student Life

Expanding school facilities and services to supply lunches are two means through which pupils secure adequate protection, intelligent participation and balanced perspective in a war-torn world.

Health, Physical Fitness, and National Defense

The following statement was prepared and approved by the National Committee on Education and Defense, a group of delegates from sixty national organizations in education, including the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

THE PRESENT EMERGENCY emphasizes the need for a citizenry that is physically fit to serve. A person is said to be physically fit when he is free from defects and disease, practices good mental hygiene, and has the knowledge, skill, strength, and endurance to engage successfully in activities which life demands of him. Obviously, these elements of fitness have a direct relationship to national defense whether the individual is at the war front, in industry, or at home. Programs of health, physical education, and recreation in the schools and colleges make important and necessary contributions to health and physical fitness and hence to life in times of war and of peace. It is recognized that these programs lay the best foundation for physical fitness and training upon which the armed forces can build. With the present emergency before us, and the record of the Army and Navy rejections of men to remind us, we must again consider what the schools should do in these areas of education.

Making Americans physically fit to serve in the armed forces, in production, and in community life is an undertaking in which the nation rightly expects effective leadership from schools and colleges. Therefore, the Executive Committee of the National Committee on Education and Defense recommends:

1. That the United States Commissioner of Education and the Administrator of the Federal Security Agency secure the immediate appointment of a staff of at least four persons to work as a Division of the United States Office of Education. This staff should consist of an executive and three assistants, one in health education, one in physical education, and one in recreation. Their functions should be to serve schools and colleges and co-operate with other governmental agencies.
2. That state departments of education provide an adequate number of well-trained people to assist schools and college in the development of programs in health, physical education, and recreation.
3. That adequate health programs, including health examinations and the correction of remediable defects, be established and maintained in all schools and colleges.
4. That a daily program of physical education be established in all schools and colleges for all students, and that the program be adapted to individual needs.
5. That as far as possible the facilities and personnel of schools and colleges be used to provide physical-fitness training for the adult population.

6. That schools continue to co-operate with other community agencies in an effort to make their school programs in health, physical education, and recreation more effective.
7. That there be an increased use of schools as community centers for recreation.
8. That every local board of education serve also as a "Recreation Commission" unless a Recreation Commission or similar agency already exists in their community. Such action would extend, especially to rural communities, opportunities in community recreation which now do not exist. Its effect in building morale would be highly significant.

All Roads Lead to Denver

The West is expecting you this summer. Denver will be your host for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals convention. After the convention, the vacationlands of not only Colorado but the entire West await you. The principals will convene June 29, and extend into the next day. Monday afternoon in joining meeting with the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, your Association will discuss two very important topics: *A War-time Program of Health Education and Physical Fitness for our Schools*, and *The War Challenges the Health Program of the Secondary Schools*. Tuesday afternoon, *Teaching the Social Studies in War Time, New Teaching Materials for Social Studies Teachers*, and *Administering an Effective Program for Social Studies* will be discussed jointly with the National Council for the Social Studies.

Located not far from the geographic center of the United States, Denver, the metropolis of the Rocky Mountain West, is 2000 miles inland from the Atlantic Coast, and 1400 miles from the Pacific. It is about 1000 miles from the Mexican border, and 1000 miles from the Canadian line. Served by numerous bus lines and seven railroads, the city is the hub from which roads lead, like the spokes of a wheel, to the great vacationlands of the West.

From Carlsbad Caverns, near the Mexican border, to Glacier National Park on the Canadian line, the Rocky Mountain West offers one adventure after the other in scenic grandeur, and unfolds chapter after chapter in the epic of America's frontier days. Choose any western wonderland—you may reach it easily from Denver: Wyoming, land of the Yellowstone National Park, and hunter's and fisherman's paradise; South Dakota, famous for the Black Forest and the Rushmore Memorial; Utah, offering Bryce and Zion Canyons and a route to the north rim of the Grand Canyon; and New Mexico with its old-world atmosphere.

Plan to be in Denver, June 27 to July 2, the place and the time of the complete convention of the N.E.A.

The Schools and War Manpower Engineers Are Needed

HARRY A. JAGER

*Chief Occupational Information and Guidance Service,
United States Office of Education*

A PLAN TO PROVIDE trained and specialized war-time manpower, beginning with an additional 80,000 engineers, during the current year, and an adequate annual supply for the duration of the war, has been sponsored by Brigadier General Frank J. McSherry, Deputy Director for Labor Supply and Training, War Production Board; Commissioner John W. Studebaker, United States Office of Education; and the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education (the professional organization of engineering institutions). The provisions of the plan and ways in which schools and colleges can select potential engineering candidates now and establish a pool of available and qualified manpower for future training, have just been announced by the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the United States Office of Education. Complete information that should receive the immediate attention of secondary-school administrators, has been sent to all chief state-school officers, city and county superintendents, and principals of all secondary schools. A brief summary of the plan is published here so that the attention of secondary-school principals and guidance officers of secondary schools, may be directed immediately to answering the call of our government by the schools of the nation.

THE PRESENT AND FUTURE SUPPLY OF ENGINEERS FOR WAR-PRODUCTION PURPOSES

Since December 7, 1941, new demands have been made upon the engineering profession and many more engineers will be needed to fill positions in military service and in industry than are being supplied by the colleges at present. Young secondary-school graduates are, therefore, being urged to enroll in engineering schools if they have ability and interest in this type of work. Financial assistance available through Federal, state, and private sources to cover loans or scholarships in college for those who are qualified for engineering training but unable to pay, should be employed. *Proposal for Increasing the Supply of Engineers for War-Production Purposes.*

AN OVERVIEW FOR ENGINEERING SCHOOLS AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I. Needs.

Authorities agree that a greater supply of engineers both for the current year and for the future must be furnished for war-production purposes. Securing this supply involves utilizing the services of all completely- or partially-trained engineers in work related to their train-

ing, and securing a larger number of qualified secondary-school graduates to enter engineering institutions during the academic year July, 1942, to July, 1943. Enough engineering freshmen must be obtained to use the complete facilities of the individual engineering institutions.

II. The supply of individuals with complete or partial training should be canvassed first.

1. The demand for engineers is immediate. Any supply made available in 1942 is of utmost value. Therefore, any measure promising to increase the immediate supply must be explored first.
2. Fully-trained engineers and those with partial training who dropped out of school previous to 1936 may be picked up from the data of the Selective Service Occupational Questionnaire.
3. Partially-trained engineers to the number of perhaps 100,000 dropped out of engineering schools between 1936 and 1941. To discover these the engineering schools should:
 - a. Canvass those in this group, who the college records show had ability, to discover those not now employed in the field of training.
 - b. Supply the U. S. Employment Office in the locality in which each lives with his record and address so that the U.S.E.S. may attempt to make contact for
 - (1) Men and jobs, local or otherwise, or
 - (2) Men and refresher training.
4. Engineering schools reported a total enrollment of 110,000 as of October 6, 1941. This group should be classified as of April 1, 1942, as follows:
 - a. Those clearly able on every score to be graduated.
 - b. Those clearly able to be graduated if financial aid is forthcoming.
 - c. Those clearly able in technical training, but failing in non-engineering or academic required work.
 - d. Those failing in technical work, but who entered college with outstanding preparatory school records.
 - e. Those who on every score are unable to succeed in engineering.
5. After this classification, suitable steps should be taken as follows:
For Group "a," such acceleration as is possible.
For Group "b," financing by any means possible.
For Group "c," substitution of further technical work in lieu of non-engineering work.
For Group "d," individual personnel work by college officers to salvage as many individuals as possible.
For Group "e," diversion into ESMDT, into employment, or into military service, where special qualifications may be utilized.
Since, if the pattern of last year is followed, approximately 23,000 of the present 110,000 registered will have disappeared between September, 1941, and September, 1942, even a 20 per cent

salvage of this number is of the utmost importance for increasing the immediate supply of engineers.

III. Recruiting engineering freshmen—function of the engineering school.

1. Since the sources of students of any particular engineering school make a pattern of long development, each engineering school should concentrate on secondary schools where its present enrollment is.
2. Each engineering school will determine the number of entering freshmen it can accommodate in 1942-43. These will be distributed into the various freshman classes undertaken during the year under accelerated programs.
3. The individual engineering school will canvass the best methods of securing the necessary number of freshmen, but *will not lay plans to secure more freshmen than it can accommodate*. When conditions make it practicable, the following plan is suggested for obtaining freshman enrollment:
 - a. Each engineering school will list the preparatory schools from which it has usually drawn freshmen, establishing quotas based on previous experience. The total of these quotas *must not be more than the number of freshmen that can be accommodated*.
 - b. Each engineering school will contact these schools suggesting:
 - (1) Number of freshmen (both sexes) it would like to have.
 - (2) Dates they can be received into beginning classes.

Optional:

- (3) Simplified criteria for admission and
- (4) Simplified admission blanks.

IV. Recruiting engineering freshmen—function of the secondary school.

1. Each secondary school will list all pupils in the senior classes with the minimum scholastic achievement in required subjects.
2. Each of these pupils will be tested and classified on criteria agreed upon by the engineering school.
3. This list would then furnish a pool from which the total number requested by all engineering schools will be recruited. *No pupil will be included in this pool without clear academic and personal qualifications.* Qualified pupils without financial means, however will be included. Practicable methods for enabling these pupils to undertake college work should be sought.
4. The junior class will be similarly canvassed with the following additional provision:

Pupils qualified in scholastic and personal aptitude may be accelerated upon an individual basis to enter midyear accelerated beginning classes in engineering schools.
5. These selected groups of pupils should then be made fully aware of the opportunities in the various institutions concerned, and of the patriotic obligation of putting their particular preparation and talents at the service of the government.

6. The secondary school should assign specific personnel to carry out all these provisions.

V. Liaison between engineering schools and secondary schools.

1. After the preliminary steps stated above under III and IV have been undertaken, the engineering school should send a representative to the secondary school concerned as follows: (In order of preference.)
 - a. The Admissions Officer.
 - b. A carefully selected member of the faculty.
 - c. An alumnus who has been carefully prepared for the task.
2. This person should:
 - a. Confer with the principal, student counselor, and heads of the mathematics and science departments.
 - b. Arrange individual conferences with potential candidates.
 - c. Consummate, to the extent to which his institution may authorize him, further admission procedures with acceptable candidates.
3. When circumstances dictate, these procedures may be conducted by correspondence.
4. There may also be cases of schools which have no recent graduates in any engineering school, but one or more outstanding current candidates. The usual college application procedures may govern these cases.

SUGGESTED STEPS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR GUIDANCE AND SELECTION OF PUPILS TOWARD ENTRANCE INTO ENGINEERING SCHOOLS

The special effort of which the following procedures are a part is to fill a war need for more engineers. Many other occupations may have equal war urgency. Schools should not allow this single demand to warp their efforts to counsel members of their graduating classes to choose vocations suitable to their abilities and aptitudes. All counseling should be from the point of view of war requirements as they develop from time to time.

On the average, engineering schools neither want nor can accommodate more than one-third more freshmen than were sent them last year. If a school will send now one extra pupil to engineering training for every three it sent last year, or proportion, all needs will be met.

The critical element in the current problem is the sending to the engineering institution *only* students with abilities and personal characteristics which will guarantee, so far as is humanly possible, their success in and graduation from engineering college.

Many schools have established guidance and selection procedures. For these the "suggested steps" may be used as a checklist. Since engineering institutions are playing a reciprocal part in these procedures and have a copy of all this material, they have a right to expect that secondary schools will have taken the steps suggested. Schools with established selection

procedures may well, therefore, supplement their practices with any additional steps listed. Other schools may adopt the entire procedure.

SUGGESTED STEPS TO BE TAKEN¹

1. Examine carefully the section above "Proposal for Increasing the Supply of Engineers for War-Production Purposes." Note that your school has a share in a National effort and that engineering schools are also preparing to accept their share in this effort.
2. Prepare a list of 12th grade pupils (girls as well as boys) who have completed one and one-half units of algebra and one unit of plane geometry. Indicate by checks those who have also had solid geometry, trigonometry, college algebra, chemistry, physics, and mechanical drawing.
3. Cross off the names of those who do not rank in the upper half of their class. Leave as a collateral list any not included above, but with outstanding achievement in mathematics and science.
4. Supply the remaining pupils with occupational information on engineering². Group or individual counseling methods may be used.
5. Eliminate the names of those who state that they are definitely *not* interested in considering engineering, but retain those who are not certain. See that no eliminations are due to financial inability.
6. Give tests to the remaining group. Below is a list of tests suggested as suitable for use with students entering engineering courses. Individuals should be given standardized tests in algebra, chemistry, English, physics, plane geometry, and scholastic aptitude. Enter the name of tests used and individual results on a condensed form which is to be sent to each institution by the secondary school. If you already have recent results of similar tests, these may be used instead.
7. Have several teachers, who know the pupil intimately, fill out a personality rating for each pupil on the list. Make a composite rating for each pupil. If you do not already have a suitable blank, a suggested blank is the *Personality Record* form of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals³.
8. Ask each pupil to fill in a personal information blank. If you already have in use a satisfactory personal information blank, it may be used. If not, a suggested form, *Personal Information Blank*, has been devised by the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.¹
9. Hold individual interview with each pupil on the list. In preparing for the interviews, review such items as grades, test results, and other

¹A form together with a somewhat detailed and comprehensive list of procedures is found in the publication *Engineers are Needed*, issued by the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C. A copy of this publication has been mailed to each superintendent of schools and each principal of a secondary school in the United States. Extra copies may be obtained without charge from the U. S. Office of Education, Occupational Information and Guidance Service, Washington, D. C.

²An occupational brief on Engineering is included in *Engineers are Needed*. See footnote 1.

³This copyrighted *Personality Record* form can be secured from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. \$2.00 per hundred copies.

details on the cumulative record; and during the interview point your questions in such a manner as to emphasize the abilities important in engineering. Some of these abilities are:

- a. Ability in mathematics, science, and mechanical drawing.
- b. Ability for quick and accurate observation.
- c. Thoroughness and accuracy on details.

Write a brief summary of your own observations.

10. Arrange possible dates for visiting college representatives who have written to the school and notify them at once so that a definite date can be arranged. Enclose with your letter a list of candidates on a specially devised form which contains condensed information about available candidates.
11. When the college representative arrives, provide him with:
 - a. A report of your activities to date, outlining your suggestions regarding the best candidates for his college, other possibilities, scholarship candidates, and possible ways of working out problems of undersupply, oversupply, or overlapping quotas.
 - b. Suitable interviewing quarters.
 - c. Individual records on each student composed of:
 - (1) Cumulative report card,
 - (2) Personality blank,
 - (3) Test records,
 - (4) Recently completed student information blank,
 - (5) Summary of recent interview to determine suitability, and engineering, and
 - (6) Health record, if available.
12. If you do not receive a quota from any college and you believe you have qualified candidates, write to the college of the individual's choice at once for application forms.
13. A similar selection procedure should be followed as soon as possible with those in the junior class who are possible candidates for engineering college. The possibility of accelerating⁵ such pupils to prepare them for February entrance to engineering college should be considered and arranged for as soon as possible.

**A LIST OF TESTS SUGGESTED AS SUITABLE FOR USE WITH
STUDENTS ENTERING ENGINEERING COURSES**

Instructions

The tests listed following are only suggestions and not recommendations. Results obtained by the school from standardized tests already administered or from other similar tests to be secured may be substituted.

¹See footnote 1 at bottom of previous page.

²Consult *War-time Acceleration of Secondary-School Pupils*, THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. 26, No. 104, February 1942, pp. 29-32.

It is very desirable, however, that such tests fit into either of the two plans described below. There are two plans which may be used:

Plan I. Use one test of the type suggested in Group I, "General Intelligence" (verbal) and one test of the type suggested in Group II, "Achievement Batteries." If Plan I is used, enter on Form A test scores for English, mathematics, and science in place of such subjects as algebra, plane geometry, and physics. (Even though an achievement battery may have a social studies section, it is not necessary to use it).

Plan II. Use one test of the type suggested in Group I, "General Intelligence" (verbal) and a selection of tests of the type suggested in Group III, "Achievement Tests" (separates). If Plan II is used, enter on Form A test scores for each separately—algebra, chemistry, English, plane geometry, and physics.

Manuals for administering which accompany test booklets are written in such a manner that almost any *careful* person may administer and score the tests. Tests which are herein listed as machine-scored are also set up for hand scoring. Machine scoring is most practical when large numbers of tests must be scored. If machine-scored answer sheets are employed, special mechanical pencils filled with electrographic lead must normally be used. Tests such as the *Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability* and the *Myers-Ruch High School Progress Tests* have special aids in hand scoring.

Group I. General Intelligence (Verbal)

1. *American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen, Grade 13.* 1941. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. Price: 7 cents per copy plus 2 cents for answer sheet. Specimen set 25 cents. Hand or machine scored. Working time: 60 minutes.
2. a. *California Short-form Test of Mental Maturity.* Advanced S-Form. Grades 9-adult. Price: 75 cents per 25 copies; 4 cents per copy in smaller quantities. Specimen set 25 cents. Hand or machine scored. Working time: 45 minutes.
- b. *California Test for Mental Maturity.* Grades 9-adult. Form E. Regular edition, 1939. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif. Price: \$1.25 per 25 copies; 6 cents per copy in smaller quantities, specimen set 25c. Hand scored. Working time: 2 periods, 45 minutes each.
3. *Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability.* Form C, Intelligence Test for College Students. Houghton-Mifflin, Boston, Mass. Price: 75 cents per 25 copies. Specimen set free. Scoring is by the Clapp-Young self-marking device and requires no key. Working time: 35 minutes.
4. *Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability.* Grades 7-12. Forms C and D, 1942. World Book Co., Yonkers N. Y. Price: \$1.20 per 25 copies. Specimen set 20 cents. Set up for hand or machine scoring. Machine-scored answer sheet for either form, 70 cents per 25 sheets, key 20 cents. Working time: 40 minutes.

Group II. Achievement Batteries

1. *Co-operative General Achievement Tests.* Forms N, O, P. Part I, Social Studies; Part II, Natural Sciences; Part III, Mathematics. Co-operative Test Service, New York, N. Y. Price: Each part in a separate booklet, $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents per 10-90 copies. Specimen set 50 cents. Set up for hand or machine scoring: machine-scored answer sheet, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per copy. Working time: 40 minutes for each part.

2. *Myers-Ruch High School Progress Test.* Grades 9-13. Two forms. Subjects tested: (a) Mathematics, (b) Science, (c) Social Studies (d) English. World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y. Price: \$1.30 per 25 copies. Specimen set 20 cents. Set up for hand (patented perforated stencil key for quick scoring) or machine scoring. Machine-scored answer sheet, 70 cents per 25 sheets; set of 2 machine keys, 40 cents per set. Working time: 60 minutes.
3. *Progressive Achievement Tests.* Advanced Battery. High School and Junior College. Two forms. Subjects tested: (a) Reading Vocabulary, (b) Reading Comprehension, (c) Arithmetic Reasoning, (d) Arithmetic Fundamentals, (e) Language. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif. Price: \$1.50 per 25 copies; 7 cents per copy in smaller quantities. Specimen set 25 cents. Working time: 150 minutes.
4. *Sones-Harry High School Achievement Test.* For high school students or college freshmen. Two forms. Subjects tested: (a) Language and Literature, (b) Mathematics, (c) Natural Science, (d) Social Studies. World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y. Price: \$2.00 per 25 copies. Specimen set 30 cents. Hand scored. Working time: 40 minutes for each.

Group III. Achievement Tests (Separates)
Algebra

1. *Co-operative Intermediate Algebra*—Quadratics and beyond. Numerous forms. Co-operative Test Service New York, N. Y. Price: $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents per copy for 10-99 copies. Specimen set 25 cents. Set up for hand or machine scoring in the 40 min. test; only hand scoring in 90 min. test.

Chemistry

1. *Columbia Research Bureau Chemistry Test.* Two forms. World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y. Price: \$1.50 per 25 copies. Specimen set 20 cents. Hand scored. Working time: 2 hours.
2. *Co-operative Chemistry (High School).* Numerous forms. Co-operative Test Service, New York, N. Y. Price: 40 minute form $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents per copy for 10-99 copies, specimen set 25 cents. Set up for hand or machine scoring in the 40 minute test; only hand scoring in 90 minute test.

Physics

1. *Columbia Research Bureau Physics Test.* Two forms. World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y. Price: \$1.25 for 25 copies. Specimen set 30 cents. Hand scored. Working time: 90 minutes.
2. *Co-operative Physics Test (High School).* Numerous forms. Co-operative Test Service, New York, N. Y. Price: 40 minute form $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents per copy for 10-99 copies, specimen set 25 cents; 90 minute form $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents per copy for 10-99 copies, specimen set 25 cents. Set up for hand or machine scoring in the 40 min. test; only hand scoring in the 90 min. test.

Plane Geometry

1. *Columbia Research Bureau Plane Geometry Test.* Two forms. World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y. Price: \$1.20 per 25 copies. Specimen set 25 cents. Hand scored. Working time: 60 minutes.
2. *Co-operative Plane Geometry Test.* Three forms. Cooperative Test Service, New York, N. Y. Price: $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents per copy for 10-99 copies. Specimen set 25 cents. Hand or machine scoring in the 40 minute test; only hand scoring in the 90 minute test.
3. *Schorling-Sanford Achievement Test in Plane Geometry.* Two forms. Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. Price: \$2.65 for 25 copies. Specimen set 35 cents. Hand scored. Working time: 52 minutes.

Youth and War-Service Opportunities

PAUL E. ELICKER

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IN THE BULLETIN for April 1942, pages 152-170, an article appeared under the above heading listing the known available war-service opportunities for youth. The information given here should be regarded as supplementary to that given in THE BULLETIN for April 1942 and should serve as a complete file of present wartime-service opportunities. New opportunities for service will undoubtedly be available as the war progresses and some changes in qualification requirements may be announced. This service, prepared largely for colleges, will be continued until June 30, 1942 by the American Council on Education from whom a complete set of bulletins on war-service opportunities can be obtained at a nominal cost.¹

ADDITIONAL WAR-SERVICE OPPORTUNITIES²

ENLISTMENT IN NAVAL RESERVE—COLLEGE MEN

VOLUNTARY ENLISTMENT IN THE ARMY

WAR DEPARTMENT—OFFICER CANDIDATE SCHOOL

CIVIL SERVICE—JUNIOR CHEMIST

WOMEN IN WAR INDUSTRIES

In addition to Class V-1, Class V-5, Class V-7, and the opportunities in the Marine Corps, Coast Guard, and Merchant Marine,³ there are other openings for enlistment in the Naval Reserve. The complete list of ratings in which qualified men may be enlisted is obtainable from local naval recruiting stations and from local Naval District Headquarters. The additional Naval Reserve Classes are as follows:

V-3. *Naval Communications.* Enlistments are as apprentice seamen for radiomen, signalmen, or yeomen. Qualified seamen are sent to specialists' schools upon completion of recruit training. Men qualified by experience in telegraphy may be enlisted as telegraphers. Persons experienced in ultra-high-frequency radio installations will be enlisted and sent to a special school for further training.

V-4. Enlisted men as yeomen for the performance of office work re-

¹The material which follows, and the materials printed on pages 152-170 of THE BULLETIN for April 1942 were largely abstracted from *War-Service Opportunities for College and University Students*, a cumulative loose-leaf bulletin which is being issued in installments at intervals of approximately three weeks, from February through June, 1942, by the American Council on Education at 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. The entire series is being distributed by the American Council on Education to presidents of universities, colleges, and junior colleges. Institutional members of the Council receive three free sets, and heads of other institutions of higher education receive one free set. The service is operated on a limited budget which does not permit of additional free distribution, but in response to a considerable demand additional sets of the complete series are sold at \$2 each when fewer than 10 copies are ordered, or \$1.50 each in lots of 10 to 24, or \$1 each in lots of 25 or more. Changes in the original data occur frequently, and each successive installment of *War-Service Opportunities* will carry the necessary amendments as well as additional new materials. Thus the entire series will continue to grow and be kept up to date through June 30, 1942, constituting a continuously valuable service furnished to educational institutions by the American Council on Education.

²See "Youth and War-Service Opportunities," THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. 26, No. 106, April 1942, pp. 152-170.

³Described in THE BULLETIN, Vol. 26, No. 106, April 1942, The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C. pages 158-164.



Here the Marine Engineering Laboratory provides training for young men in the armed forces.

quiring training and experience in specialized subject matter, in some instances including ability to read, write, and speak foreign languages (enlistments are taken only on request of the Commandant of the Naval District for the enlistment of a particular individual.).

V-6. Open for nearly all ratings, covering a wide range of types of duty. Of special interest to some college men is enlistment as *hospital apprentice*, *hospital corpsman*, or *pharmacist's mate*. V-6 is also a varied class to which enlisted men in Class V-3 who do not qualify in the specialists' schools may be transferred to general detail.

Requirements for Enlistment

Age—Minimum, 17; maximum 35 for V-3 and 50 for V-4 and V-6. Age limits are to nearest birthday.

Physical—Standards have recently been slightly reduced.

Comments

Amounts and types of experience required, demonstration of skills, and rates of pay for the numerous ratings within the several classes vary too greatly to explain here. Details available at local naval recruiting stations.

VOLUNTARY ENLISTMENT—IN THE ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES

Enlistments, with some exceptions, are made for the Army of the United States, unassigned. Men enlisted are classified at reception centers according to their skills and aptitudes. When the enlisted man is interviewed at the reception center he can express a choice for the arm of service to which he wishes to be assigned. He will be so assigned if the classification officer finds that the needs of the service and the qualifications of the man make that desirable. Exceptions to this policy are announced from

time to time to fill special needs of the War Department as set forth below.

Relation to Selective Service

All applicants except those 18 and 19 years of age and those enlisting for immediate appointment as aviation cadets will be required to present to the recruiting officer a statement from their local Selective Service Board that they are not employed in technical or key positions in war production for the Army or Navy, and have not been called for induction.

Direct Enlistment in Selected Branches

Applicants between their 18th and 20th birthdays may, within the limits of stated quotas, be enlisted directly for service in their choice of the following branches: Armored Force, Cavalry, Coast Artillery Corps, Corps of Engineers, Field Artillery, Infantry, and Signal Corps. They may be enlisted for the Air Corps, contingent upon making a score of 100 or better in the Army General Classification Test at the reception center.

Requirements for Enlistment as Parachutists

Age—18-30 inclusive; parental consent if minor.

Physical qualifications—Same as for Regular Army, plus—

- (1) Applicant must be alert, active, supple, with firm muscles and sound limbs, and capable of developing into an aggressive individual fighter, with great endurance.
- (2) Maximum weight, 185 lbs.
- (3) Minimum visual acuity, 20/40 each eye.
- (4) Blood pressure—Persistent systolic of 140 MM or persistent diastolic about 100 MM will disqualify.

Pay of Parachutists

Regular pay of the grade held as an infantry soldier, plus \$50 a month.

Comments

Local recruiting stations can supply additional information.

WAR DEPARTMENT — OFFICER CANDIDATE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Approximately 75,000 new officers will be commissioned in the land forces within the ensuing year, chiefly from the ranks. Enlisted men (selectees or volunteers) in all branches of the Army may apply for entrance into an officer candidate school. Such schools are operated by thirteen arms of the service: Adjutant General, Armored Force, Cavalry, Chemical Warfare, Coast Artillery, Engineers, Field Artillery, Finance, Infantry, Medical Administrative, Ordnance, Quartermaster, and Signal Corps.

Training

Three month's basic training as an enlisted man is prerequisite. Candidates must complete another three months of intensive training in an Officer Candidate School before being recommended for commission as second lieutenant. Unsuccessful candidates will continue as enlisted men, *except* those with dependents (Class 3-A) who requested induction to become officer candidates under a provision that if unsuccessful they will be returned to their original classification in the Selective Service System.

*Requirements for Selection**Age*—18-45 inclusive.*Examinations**Physical*—As for Army officers, except for height, which will be same as for selectees.*Mental*—Score of at least 110 on Army General Classification Test.*Other*—Appearance in person before an examining board of not less than three experienced officers.*Education and Experience*.—No rigid prescriptions, but education is given considerable weight in all arms, and great weight in those which require technical competencies. Practical experience is often acceptable in lieu of formal education. Some of the technical branches want men with experience or special education in the fields indicated:*SIGNAL CORPS*—Communications, electrical engineering, and electronics.*ENGINEERS AND ORDNANCE*—All engineering fields.*QUARTERMASTER*—Accounting, animal husbandry, business administration, food chemistry, transportation, public-utility management, and textile engineering.*FINANCE*—Accounting, business administration, banking, commerce, economics, law, finance, and statistics.*MEDICAL ADMINISTRATIVE*—Hospital management, maintenance of hospital records, medical supply accounts, and mess management.*Qualities of Leadership*—Outstanding, but not necessarily previously demonstrated by actual command of a group of soldiers.*Other*—Citizen of the United States.*Rank and Pay*

As enlisted man, regular pay of the grade held; as second lieutenant, pay and allowances aggregating approximately \$183 a month. Allowances somewhat less if quarters are furnished by government.

*Sources of Information**War Department Circular No. 48*, Feb. 19, 1942 (13 pp.); *War Department News Release*, March 19, 1942, *Officer Candidate School Program*.**CIVIL SERVICE—JUNIOR CHEMIST****War Service Appointments**

This is an example of a type of work for which the war has created needs in excess of the numbers of eligibles produced by the regular assembled examinations and consequently an open *unassembled* examination has been announced. Appointments will be known as War-Service Appointments, in no case to extend beyond six months after termination of the war. Particular attention is called to the fact that war demands for technically trained persons have created unusual opportunities for *women chemists*. Navy yards, arsenals, and other governmental laboratories throughout the United States are employing women in chemical work.

Requirements for Eligibility

Age—No age limit

Examinations

Physical—Necessary only to demonstrate capacity to perform duties, and freedom from defects constituting occupational hazards.

Other—No written test. Applicants are rated on experience, education, and training.

Education—Full 4-year course leading to bachelor's degree, including or supplemented by at least 30 semester hours' study in chemistry. *Senior college students*, otherwise qualified, who show that they expect to complete the required college course within 4 months of the date of their applications, are eligible for provisional appointment before graduation.

Pay

\$2,000 a year.

Source of Detailed Information

United States Civil Service Commission Announcement No. 219 (Unassembled), issued April 6, 1942. Application forms are obtainable at any first-class or second-class postoffice, except in 15 district headquarters cities, where they must be obtained from the United States Civil Service District offices. They may also be obtained from the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C.

WOMEN IN WAR INDUSTRIES

An extensive survey conducted by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor disclosed the following facts relating to women in the war effort.

It is estimated that more than 2,000,000 women will be needed for work on the production of war materials before the end of 1942. New jobs are being created through the break-down of "big" processes into the simpler and less skilled operations. Shorter training periods are called for. Women are being employed in the machine shops, on the assembly lines, and at inspection posts. A few of the outstanding examples of the expected demands for women are listed here:

Aircraft plants—one plant having none but male employees heretofore, expects to take more women; in February they had 27 women on the production line, and this may increase to 6,000 by summer.

One large company with branch plants in different parts of the country has tried out women in one of its locations and expects to employ them elsewhere as soon as plans are formulated for various occupations.

A large rubber goods manufacturer had representatives touring the country visiting the various co-educational and women's colleges, seeking women who had majored in chemistry.

Ammunition plants already employ large numbers of women for making ammunition for small arms and for artillery. In the mechanical time-

fuse department of a government arsenal 96 per cent of the workers are women.

Some electrical manufacturing companies are asking for *women college graduates* who have concentrated in mathematics, chemistry, or physics to serve as assistant engineers for work on estimates and mathematical computations; some women will also be able to find positions as radio physicists and technicians.

It is the feeling of the Women's Bureau that qualified college women trained in mathematics, chemistry, and physics can find a place in any of these industries leading to a career after the termination of the present emergency. Courses qualifying women for positions as draftsmen, inspectors, supervisors, engine testing, computation, and a wide range of precision work, are now available to women through the opening of their defense-training courses by some of the engineering schools of the universities. For more complete details on the role of women in war industries write to the *Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.*



Cadets in battle maneuvers fearlessly advance to make a surprise attack on enemy positions. The smoke screen in the background conceals their embarkment.

A Philosophy of Guidance in War Time

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GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

GUIDANCE, if it is to be maximally effective, must be capable of meeting the challenge of a time of trouble. In "normal" times the responsibility for guidance that rests upon the schools is heavy enough in all conscience, but when the nation is at war this responsibility assumes major proportions. Then, indeed, is the value of our guidance program severely tested. Either it follows traditional practices or it responds sensitively to the terrible strain imposed upon it. It is hard to see how the guidance function, like almost every other educative process, can escape the impulsion of change. Guidance, a function of society as a whole, is profoundly affected by the sudden changes taking place in the cultural matrix. These changes are already in the making, and they are beginning to alter sharply the quality of our institutional life. No man, according to the noble words of John Donne, "is an Island, intire of itself; every man is a piece of the Continent, a part of the maine; if a Clod bee washed away by the Sea, Europe is the lesse, as well as if a Promontorie were . . . any man death diminisheth me, because I am involved in Mankinde; And therefore never send to know for whom the bell tolls; it tolls for thee." Efforts on a large scale have been taken to protect the lives of the young from death-dealing bombs and to bolster up their morale, but to date very little has been attempted in the way of guidance.

If our assumption that far-reaching changes have already begun is correct, and it is difficult to see how this can be disputed, then we are faced with this alternative: either we drift with the current, meeting needs only when they arise, or else (to change the metaphor) we seize time by the forelock and anticipate as far as is humanly possible the nature and direction of the forces of change, endeavoring to adjust our institutional life and our philosophy and methods of guidance accordingly. Is it not significant that the National Resources Planning Board has mobilized its experts in the field of labor, social insurance, and social planning to devise ways and means of reconstructing our post-war economy so that the great dangers of mass unemployment, unprecedented economic dislocation, and violent social unrest will be eliminated? It is neither utopian nor unscientific for educators to plan now and plan realistically for the effective guidance of youth before the emergency becomes acute.

If we are committed to a program of planned guidance, there are a number of things we must endeavor to find out experimentally. We must know what the fundamental needs of our pupils are, what they are thinking, feeling, experiencing. We must protect them not only against the dangers of death but also against the equally real dangers of mental breakdown, harassing fears, nervous shock, hysteria, the cumulative pressure of

anxiety. We must develop preventative as well as therapeutic techniques. Youth must learn to face with fortitude the horrors and unavoidable tragedies of war. How can all this be accomplished? What is to be done?

Fear is the mother of action. When the nation was galvanized into awareness that it was actually at war, educators were among the first to make elaborate suggestions for protecting the lives of the young. There was a great deal of talk, and more talk. The spirit of improvisation prevailed. In the early, exciting months of the war it occurred to but a few that planning for such an emergency was a national function. Furthermore, few educators thought of drawing upon the experiences through which large cities like London had passed in bombings, and profiting from the lesson the English authorities had learned in coping with this problem. Finally, little or no provisions were made for dealing adequately with the dangers arising from the war of nerves; no constructive program was formulated for the guidance of the adolescent personality in war time.

THE ADOLESCENT PERSONALITY

The problem of educational guidance in war time is beset with exceptional difficulties. First of all, powerful pressure is applied to subordinate many normal educational activities to the exclusive aim of winning the war. All sources of social and cultural energy are harnessed directly to the war machine. Then, too, the guidance counsellor must endeavor to solve problems for which there are no precedents: Should pupils be advised to complete their secondary-school education before entering the defense industry or enlisting in the army? If they are to remain in school until the time of graduation, what kind of education should they receive? What changes, if any, should be instituted in the curriculum? Furthermore, the youth of America live in the future as well as in the present. To what future can we confidently recommend them? Shall they give up in despair the idea of planning for a future which is not only problematical but darkly overcast? How can they attempt to plan for the future when everything seems so uncertain?

Guidance counsellors will have to gain some insight into the nature of youth and the special problems that youth have to face in times of war and peace before they can hope to achieve any desirable results. The adolescent personality, like the mature personality only to a more marked degree, is characterized by strain, uncertainty, a sense of inadequacy. During the period of adolescence, intellectual powers reach unusual heights. The individual is more aware of problems, things, people, contradictions, the questionable in nature, society, and man. He takes a feverish interest in abstract problems, humanitarian and political, social, spiritual, and religious; his mind is disturbed by a host of questions that clamor for an answer. He tries to envisage the future; he is concerned with his personal destiny. He begins to reach out to wider horizons. He seeks to frame a system of beliefs, values, norms of conduct. Why, he asks himself, are people as they are? Why do wars break out? Why do men kill? Is there

a God that directs the fate of mankind? What is the purpose of life? The adolescent thus reveals his fundamental desire to construct a consistent world picture in which he can orient himself. He is trying to define himself and his relation to a terrifyingly vast universe. On the basis of his new experiences he is attempting to draw up a provisional philosophy of life. He is still confused, and the fact that he now lives in a war-torn world adds immeasurably to his sense of confusion and uncertainty.

There can be little doubt that if the period of adolescence is generally one of struggle and unrest, the present historical crisis will intensify the internal conflicts of youth. For the sharply accentuated sense of duty will lead them to question more seriously what contribution they can make to the winning of the war, what socially worthy purpose they can serve. Their driving impulse is to belong, to feel a strong sense of kinship with the rest of mankind—an impulse that is radically altered in many ways by the outbreak of war. Many young people will find present-day reality intolerable and strive to flee from it. The guidance counsellor will meet various types of adolescent personalities, the exhibitionistic and the reclusive, the extraverted and the introverted, the normal and the slightly neurotic, each reacting in his own way to the threatened danger of war.

WHAT CAN THE SCHOOLS DO?

Teachers, administrators, and professors of education are still at odds on the question of what youth shall be taught in war time. Some say we must go ahead as we have done in the past; what is good in time of peace is still good in time of war. Let us teach the young how to express themselves effectively; let us teach them how to read understandingly; let us cultivate in them proper habits of critical reflection, independent powers of thinking. Other writers stress the importance of personality development and mental hygiene. In this period of stress, the young must be kept mentally sane and well-balanced. Stimulating food for the imagination and for laughter must be provided. Indeed, some insist that it is unwise—nay, harmful—to harp continually on the theme of war. Pupils get enough of the war on the outside.¹ Other thinkers on the other hand, argue that in this totalitarian war it is the responsibility of teachers to implant democratic principles and ideals and develop in the young not only a rational understanding of what is at stake in the present conflict but also a dynamic love of their country, a genuine willingness to make sacrifices for the common cause, to fight for freedom.

There seems to be more or less general agreement on the last issue, namely, the need to make the young comprehend what this country is fighting for, to understand the functional meaning of democracy in all its important implications. What are the rights which we hold sacred,

¹Professor Harold A. Anderson, of the University of Chicago, argues that, war or no war, English teachers should go on teaching English. "We should not contribute to the unnerving of our boys and girls by giving them a steady diet of war talk. I pray that English teachers will continue to teach their boys and girls to write, to read, and to listen with increasing effectiveness by encouraging them to write and speak and read and listen about all those things other than war which concern boys and girls." *The English Journal*, XXXI (February, 1942), p. 95.

and why, and how do they apply to the life of the community and the lives of the pupils? Shall teachers emphasize loyalty to the United States as the supreme virtue or shall they try to make the young perceive that democracy is international in scope, that they are, for better or worse, citizens of the world, that they must respect the culture of other nations, and that alien cultures must be permitted to participate in the formulation of peace? How shall we achieve democratic unity?

The active teaching of democracy—how this is best to be done is a question of another order—is a legitimate and worthy undertaking not only for the guidance counsellor but for all teachers of youth. The young must be educated to understand the meaning and value of the democratic way of life so that they may play their part as citizens and as men in the shaping of the society of the future. If so, they must be led to comprehend the immediate as well as ultimate historical significance of the world-shaking events through which they are passing. Though they must learn the essential art of relaxation and keep their personality wholesome by cultivating a sense of humor, they cannot be spared the necessity of studying the progress of the war and passing judgment on what is happening all about them. And if they are to follow the course of the war, it is equally essential that they take an enlightened interest in the terms of the peace to be considered by the United Nations. For that peace will determine in a large measure the kind of world in which they will have to live.

The National Committee on Education and Defense has called in a number of experts in social studies to draw up teaching material which can be used in teaching the basic aspects of democracy. There are, for example, such pamphlets as *How May We Defend Democracy, Our Democracy*, and *What the Schools Can Do*. This series suggests the direction which educational planning in war time should take. There is also the excellent *Next Steps in National Policy for Youth*, which contains the recommendations of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. Of particular interest in connection with the problem of education for democracy are the publications being issued by the Council for Democracy. Recently the Council for Democracy has drawn up a declaration of aims in support of the cause of world democracy, some of which the schools might well use as a basis for discussion. To help win the war, it announces, defense-thinking must be turned into victory-thinking and the war efforts of the Negro, the alien, and other minority groups must be accepted in all good faith. To help protect and advance democratic processes, violation of civil liberties must be publicized; the interests of free democratic education must be promoted; constructive criticism of the war and of domestic policies must be encouraged. To help serve the needs of civilian morale, accurate facts about the war must be released; breaches in morale must be vigorously countered; each person must find a vital part in total victory. Finally, to help plan for enduring peace, we must cultivate full-hearted appreciation of our allies; the war must be viewed as but the means to a greater end: a permanent and desirable

peace; preparations must be made to anticipate and meet the needs of post-war chaos and plan for a future democratic world order.²

AMERICAN YOUTH AND NATIONAL MORALE

If the youth of America are confused, it is because they have as yet found no convincing answer to the question: What are we fighting for? The answers they have thus far received are couched chiefly in the negative form. The United States seems to be fighting against some oppressive evil, not for some constructive and inspiring end. Aside from defeating Hitler and trouncing the Japanese, they have no conception of the good that can be achieved by winning the war. They seek the light of understanding and are left plunged in darkness. What makes matters worse is the fact that it is by its very nature irrational, the outbreak of primitive aggressive impulses. For those who like to understand the course of events in terms of black and white, the war is a nightmare of contradictions. There are, many of the young feel, no clear-cut issues. The struggle is without a pattern, without moral or ideological compulsives, without noble aims.

If panic and defeatism are to be avoided, youth must develop critical insight, discriminating awareness of what is at stake, but their education must be carried farther than that. It is also important to educate and train the will. The reaction of at least a million of the six million people who listened to the Orson Welles broadcast, indicates that critical insight alone is not enough to prevent panic. "Whatever critical ability a person may normally have," declares Professor Hadley Cantril, "it is ineffective if in any given situation his emotional insecurities are so great that they overwhelm his good judgment."³

Are we so sure that our secondary-school pupils would react more sanely if faced with a similar critical situation? Some of them, like children, still believe in the power of magic, still entertain the notion that thoughts can change the nature of reality. Whereas it may be dangerous to force children to face terribly unpleasant realities before they are emotionally prepared to understand them and accept them, this does not hold true in the case of adolescents. They must be led to cultivate a stable attitude towards life and death.⁴ They need guidance and direction. They will face death and the horror of war if they are rightly prepared for the ordeal. They must be given some understanding of the reasons why international anarchy prevails at the present time. Their thinking must be given a forward-looking, hopeful cast by having some one in whom they have confidence point out to them the need for building up a world order based on co-operation and justice; indeed that only by means of such an international organization can the world achieve peace and mankind know the blessing of security. They must be helped to absorb the impact of the war so that pathological or undesirable emotional disturb-

²Mimeographed release from the office of the Council for Democracy, 285 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.

³Canril, Hadley, *Invasion from Mars*. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1940, p. 139.

⁴Anthony, Sylvia, *The Child's Discovery of Death*. New York: Harcourt, 1940, 231 pp.

ances may be prevented. It is an unwise policy to attempt to insulate children from the realities of war. They must have a vent for their feeling of anxiety; they must be furnished opportunities within the classroom, under sympathetic teacher guidance, to voice their opinions and resolve their internal conflicts. Ably-conducted forums in the classroom may give the adolescent personality the reassurance it craves. These discussions must be supplemented, whenever necessary, by personal conferences with pupils who have been most seriously affected by the war experience.

GUIDANCE FOR PEACE

It may seem like the height of folly to spend time and energy discussing the nature of war and peace while Japan is consolidating its gains in the Far East and the Nazi armies are massing for another offensive. A sensible, realistic point of view would regard the winning of the war as the prime objective and make everything else secondary. Whatever tough-minded military experts may think, however, the searching of conscience and the anxious scanning of the horizon of the future are not luxuries that should temporarily be banned by the Priorities Board. In a democracy they are indispensable if we are to secure the whole-hearted support of the people and achieve a vigorous, national morale. What we are fighting for will determine how well we fight. Ideals energize and motivate action; faith will strengthen our arms and serve to justify the appalling sacrifice of human life. We need armadas of fighter planes and bombers that will darken the skies over Germany and Italy and Japan; we need more tanks, guns, battleships, and destroyers; but machines, however abundant, which are not controlled by men of courage and faith, will not win the war. This is what morale means if it means anything.

And it is the youth of America that must be imbued with this vision and faith. The adolescent personality has in many ways been drastically changed by the emergency of new cultural patterns. The sense of security is waning, the integration of the personality is more and more difficult to achieve. The lives of the young, especially in war time, reflect the imbalance and maladjustment of their culture. Hence the schools must devise counter-influences to serve the interests of mental health and emotional stability. Even during a period of international anarchy, the young can be shown that they are not at the mercy of ineluctable forces, that they are not hemmed in by the iron circle of necessity. The future is theirs to mould as the potter shapes the clay. But the pattern of the future will be determined by what they plan and by what they do, by their depth of understanding of the evil forces that must be overcome and by their willingness to overcome them so that they may come of age.

In their quest for understanding, the young must be made to realize that causation in human and social affairs is complex, that no single explanation will avail. Social scientists who are also Marxists argue that wars are generated by the conflicts inherent within capitalism. The Freudians, on the other hand, contend that men harbor within themselves an innate propensity to hate and kill. Fighting, according to this point of view,

is natural and instinctive; it marks a basic pattern of human behavior. War is a psychological necessity, a release for pent-up, sadistic, and destructive emotions.

Which explanation is more valid? Whatever virtue wars in the past may have developed, they fail at present to call forth any desirable biological qualities. What commendable virtue does the combatant in a world war display when he drops incendiary bombs upon a civilian town? Mechanized warfare is heartless. There is as much glamor about it as there is in slaughtering cattle. Now if youth were to understand the evil and disastrous consequences of war, would that unfit them to play their part effectively in battle? There is no reason why this should happen. A democratic society is based upon the assumption that the truth sets men free, that people will fight with greater determination if their enthusiasm is supported by intelligence and understanding, that rationally formed ideals are more desirable and enduring than fanaticism born of fear or indoctrination. Only in this way can youth be made to see that on the victory of the democracies depends the future of the scientific method, the future of Western civilization. Only in the light of free discussion and uncensored thought can the conviction gain ground that war can and must be abolished. Then youth can shake off the paralyzing pessimism implicit in the doctrine that war is ineradicably rooted in human nature. On the contrary, it is a cultural phenomenon, which appears comparatively late in the history of mankind. Aggression is a derived impulse which can be modified and redefined in a large number of ways. The anthropologist, Bronislaw Malinowski, voices his conviction, based on scientific reflection, that war can be abolished. "I believe," he declares, "that war can be legitimately fought only to end war. I believe that the future peace of mankind is possible only on a principle of a commonwealth of nations. I believe that, in a humanity still divided by races, cultures, and languages, a full tolerance in racial relations, in the treatment of nationalities, and national, religious, or racial minorities, and in respect for the individual, is the very mainspring of all progress and the foundation of all stability. The great enemy of to-day is the sovereign state" ⁵

This is the vision, this is the faith that youth must absorb if we are to be spared the fate of winning the war but losing the peace. These are the elements that must constitute a comprehensive philosophy of educational guidance during war time. It is impossible to predict the various dangers and emergencies that will arise, but if we know what we are striving for, we cannot go far wrong. We shall be able to adjust our educational system and our pupils to the extraordinary demands.

The full scope of the war-time guidance program will probably become clear only after specialists in the field have given it their earnest consideration and only after extensive experiments have been conducted throughout the schools of the nation. In the meantime, teachers and ad-

⁵Bronislaw Malinowski, "Wars—Past, Present, and Future," in *War as a Social Institution*, edited by Jesse D. Clarkson and Thomas C. Cochran. (New York, 1941), p. 30.

ministrators must come to some sort of working agreement as to the best guidance policy to follow. There is no reason why secondary-school pupils should be denied the birthright of understanding. The war is as much an integral part of the secondary-school curriculum as is science or English or geography. Here is an experience that cries out to be interpreted, and interpreted it will be, whether poorly or well, even if the schools shirk this task. Surely it is the function of the educative process to help pupils in their struggle to achieve emotional stability and intellectual understanding. The adolescent can—he must—make the effort at adjustment, and he will be the better for it. Creative mental hygiene is better than any system of therapeutics. To believe that ignorance is bliss, to protect the pupils against harsh realities, is to assume that the young have not been deeply touched by the mad and fatal turn of events. The contrary, of course, is true. In the light of these conditions, it is the duty of the schools to devise a system of guidance that will be more than a frantic, makeshift response to an emergency situation. Minds as well as bodies must be saved.



This is one phase of school work from which real guidance values, both social and emotional as well as others, are derived.

TRENDS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS Reorganizing Our Youth Agencies

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ANY SOCIAL ISSUE in a democracy is certain to enlist supporters and antagonists by cutting across groups already holding common loyalties. The result is that strange and sometimes otherwise hostile groups are brought together. This social process is well illustrated by the present controversy over the CCC and the NYA. We might look at the polemics with profit, at least with interest.

WHO HAS SUPPORTED FEDERAL-YOUTH AGENCIES?

The supporters of the Federal-youth agencies have been many. One group is composed of those with a strong desire to help youth attain mature status in a society which has not been able to employ them. Another group has been concerned about the great need for public work and for turning youth to the task of restoring our replaceable resources, for opening up vast areas of public lands for recreational purposes, and for protecting more adequately our forests, animals, and soil. This latter group has enlisted the support of forward looking educators, who have seen the necessity for public work on natural resources under state and regional planning programs of the Federal government.

To be sure there have been some selfish supporters of these youth agencies—people who stood to profit materially either through personal employment or through political power. But the major ideas underlying the work of the Federal-youth agencies have been far-reaching and are worthy of careful and prolonged study.

WHO HAS OPPOSED THE FEDERAL-YOUTH AGENCIES?

Among those opposed to these agencies have been some who have seen in the program the establishment of a dual system of education for youth. They have pointed out that the NYA and the CCC have assumed educational obligations and have in many instances set up dual shops and schools where the same job could have been or was being done more efficiently and effectively by the public schools in the community. There have been some opponents among educators who have been jealous of their own control. Others have felt that agencies doing educational work under the direct control of the Federal government were danger signals to the policy of our local and state public educational system. There have been a few short-sighted educators who have opposed anything Federally administered, and there have been some who felt that the unacademic character of the youth programs have made them unworthy of the support of educators. Some have feared, misunderstood, and disapproved of Federal planning programs, and others have been unable to conceive of a better

educational program than the one which now exists. To these groups have been added political interests which have opposed not only the administration in Washington but also the entire idea of public work and public relief.

There exists an urgent need to study the purposes for which these groups were originally established—the problems of youth—and at the same time to prepare some feasible program which can receive the support of educators and political groups alike. We are safer if we win the war and win the peace together. Such a challenge is now offered, since the agencies themselves have become smaller and their programs have been cut.

THE PURPOSES OF THE YOUTH AGENCIES

In a recent bulletin¹ the Educational Policies Commission contends that Commissioner Studebaker presented to the Secretary of the Interior and the President's Emergency Fund Allotment Committee in 1935 a plan for a "National Community Youth Program." This plan was the working details of an earlier general one which Commissioner Studebaker announced to the nation over NBC from Washington on February 20.² Essentially it provided for a Youth-Service Division in the United States Office of Education to conduct studies of the youth situation and to work with the states and communities to devise a constructive program to meet their needs. The program outlined was to include local guidance and adjustment centers to council youth, under the management of the local schools. It was to stimulate local communities to make educational opportunities more varied, flexible, and extensive; it provided for co-operation between the local agencies and the Office of Education and recommended the setting up of a few adjustment centers to serve as models for the nation. The program provided for Federal financing of the projects, the money being given to the United States Office of Education and then distributed to the local communities through the state departments of education.

Such a program appealed to schoolmen who had been accustomed to this type of procedure for all educational administration and financing, but it was not at all acceptable to those who felt that immediate action was necessary to care for the five million unemployed youth of the nation and to administer relief directly and quickly to them. Youth were hungry, unemployed, walking the streets, broken in morale. Action was needed at once and yet the program educators proposed was one of study and counsel. They offered a stone for bread, a good word as a substitute for meat. It is obvious that by the time all the local agencies scattered in each of the communities of the nation got around to planning and executing such a diversified program, the needs would have increased. Consequently, there was set up a few weeks after this plan was presented the NYA to function directly through the WPA to give immediate relief to unemployed youth.

It must be recognized that the central purpose of both the CCC, established in 1933, and the NYA, established in 1935, was the same—

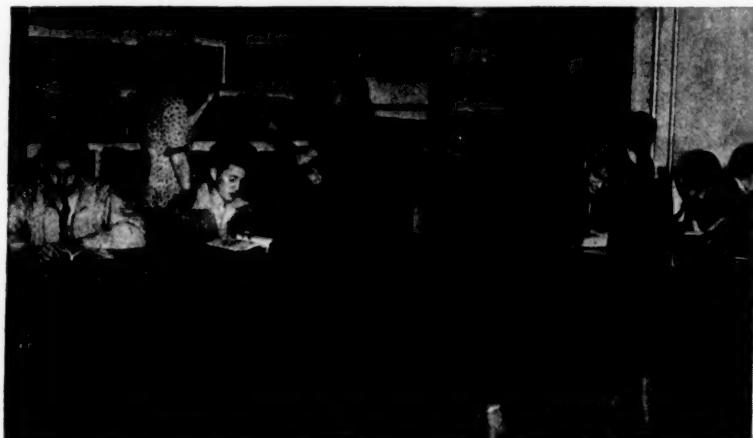
¹Educational Policies Commission, *The Civilian Conservation Corps, The National Youth Administration, and The Public Schools*. Washington, D. C.: NEA, October, 1941, p. 18.

²Studebaker, John W., "Government Interest in Youth," *School Life*, 20:177-8, April, 1935.

relief to unemployed youth. Supplemental to this central purpose were the restoration of resource areas, the building of youth morale, the offering of supplemental vocational training, and the provision of work experience. To achieve these purposes quickly, the government was more or less obligated to turn to those agencies who knew how to gather, house, feed, and put to work large numbers of men—the Army and the WPA. To have thrown this load upon the schools would have been to give inexperienced school people a job which they were not ready nor able to do. It would have put the school into the political field of Federal relief. The result would probably have been delay, confusion, and probably chaos.

EDUCATION IN THE CCC CAMPS

However, as the work got under way, those who were operating the two youth agencies recognized the need for continued education of the youth in the agencies. Many of the youth were illiterate and most of those in the CCC camps had not gone beyond the eighth or ninth grade. The CCC received official recognition of this phase of its program in 1935 and began to set up means to offer instruction in the camps. In California and Washington the program was tied to the state departments of education, and funds were granted to the camps for educational purposes on the basis of average daily attendance at classes. In California this was done under a law making it possible for local districts to organize special day and evening classes or branch secondary schools and to draw state funds for this work. This tied the educational work in the camps in these states to the state department of education and to the local secondary schools, the direction of the educational program coming under the supervision of the principal of the high-school district. Youth were given school credit toward



These NYA pupils earn while going to school and at the same time receive valuable knowledge of what are some of the many duties of a librarian.

graduation by the local secondary school in the district. Moreover the teachers were required to secure state credentials, if paid from state funds. In these two states the program of education was superior to that in those states where only Federal funds were available and the work was handled directly through the Federal offices. The CCC⁸ in these states not only welcomed, but grew to depend upon, such an educational arrangement and in many instances the program thus set up proved mutually beneficial.

GAINS OF THE FEDERAL-YOUTH AGENCIES

In assessing the gains and commendable features of these youth organizations, one must first commend the central purpose for which they were conceived. It is not possible to maintain democracy and cast off the youth. In some way adults must provide the necessities and the normal opportunities of life for those whom they bring into the world. With youth unemployed and wandering without a place to settle down, a job to tie to, or a salary to lean upon, these youth agencies stepped in and gave them hope and stability.

In the second place, these agencies have offered programs of health which youth sorely needed. With the present pressure against socialized medicine, with only perfunctory school-health examinations, and with the ways we have tied the hands of public-health nurses, many youth need the care and attention of physicians and dentists which they are not able to secure. The health program, the outdoor life, and the wholesome food supplied to them made an inestimable contribution to national welfare.

In the third place, these youth enriched the capital resources of this country by building public recreational facilities, by improving grazing lands, by conserving soils and forests, and by restoring natural resources.

In the fourth place, these agencies gave to many youth who were out of school and who would not return to school an opportunity to secure some additional general education and some special training for vocational employment. Many youth learned skills which they could use in securing employment. They learned the real meaning of work—work for somebody else under normal working conditions.

A fifth gain, which may sound trivial, was that attained by sending youth away from home to other sections of the country to work for those they did not know and to meet new people. Youth thus faced the problem of re-settlement and assuming responsibility. They worked for strangers and thus gained some concept of the size and character of this country.

A sixth gain might be that of earning money. There comes a time in the development of youth when the earning of personal money is desirable for adequate growth and development, because it is helpful in attaining stability and mature status. Many youth have never handled even an allowance and many others have never earned a dollar for themselves. Learning to earn and spend money is essential, and those youth agencies provided opportunities for this experience.

⁸Hill, Frank Ernest, *The School in the Camps*. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1935.

In the seventh place, these agencies made progress in experimenting with the idea of work experience as a part of their education. School people have been reluctant to do this, except in agriculture, as we have been largely concerned with reading and with book study in all fields. We have not been very willing to give school credit for work experience.

An eighth gain is the impetus which these agencies gave to school men to think through their own school program. Without doubt the Federal-youth agencies have frightened schoolmen into thought and action which would have been slow to occur had these agencies not reached into each local community. Any agency which startles a fixed institution out of its complacency deserves credit. The youth agencies have explored areas of extreme social significance and revealed our present program inadequacies.

As a final entry on the credit side of the ledger, we might refer to the most extensive study of the NYA.⁴ Johnson and Harvey indicated that the administrative organization of the NYA was simple and effective, relations in general with other agencies were good, the use of advisory committees was sound, the supervisory and administrative personnel was comparable with current civil-service standards, the administrative costs were relatively low, and that these agencies doubtless kept many youth from juvenile courts.

The Federal agencies took youth who had been abandoned by both school and industry and gave them relief, status, and educational training. They served these youth immediately. They engaged in educational experimentation which would have been impossible for the regular secondary school to carry on in local communities. When we operate an educational system which today loses from twenty per cent to fifty per cent of its number before secondary-school graduation is attained, it behooves us to examine objectively the work of those sheltering the ones we have abandoned.

SHORTAGES IN THE YOUTH AGENCIES

There are on the other hand aspects of the Federal-youth programs which should be changed—a fact which has been recognized in actual modifications in some cases. In the first place, the army should offer lodging but not much else to the youth in the camps. The separation that exists between men and officers, characteristic of the army, cannot serve to establish good relationships for counselling and guidance so sorely needed by these maladjusted and abandoned youth. The type of discipline or control exercised by the army deprives these youth from setting up in each camp a natural and normal sociological community unit of government, electing their officers, building their rules and regulations, maintaining controls in their own hands, and participating in planning and studying their complete program of work, government, study, and recreation. The program of guiding youth, then, was ill suited to the need.

In the second place, too many Federal agencies have exercised administrative control over the same administrative unit. To divide the administration of the camp among four separate Federal agencies is not good ad-

⁴Johnson, Palmer O. and Harvey, Oswald, *The National Youth Administration*. Washington, D.C.: The Advisory Committee on Education, 1938. p. 19-21.

ministration and does not provide for proper service relationships. There are too many bosses, resulting in too little unity among the camp activities.

In the third place, there has been insufficient joint planning and relationship between the Federal agency and the community in which the work of the agency was being pursued. Co-operation was a word for discussion, not a policy to be followed. In spite of the arrangement for local sponsorship of the NYA projects, designed to tie the agency closer to the local community, the planning has not been of such a nature as to prevent duplicate programs being offered. At times shops were erected without reference to existing school shops or location for continued long-time use.

In the fourth place, as the functions of the agencies have extended from relief into education, friction has arisen and services have been duplicated. This has caused educators to feel that there were emerging the possibilities of setting up a dual system of education, controlled and financed by the government, against which the local school would have to compete unfairly. For instance, if a youth is given the choice at the age of seventeen of going to an ordinary secondary school without pay or going to an NYA residence center with pay, he will likely choose the latter. The youth's choice may be unrelated to needs of himself or of society.

In the fifth place, there are some who feel that if social agencies continue to encroach upon each other, struggling for pupils and funds, a system of education may emerge which will split in the middle, part of it being for those who can stay in school and learn from books and part of it for those who need to go to work or to earn part of their way through school. If this should occur, democracy would divide its youth into two economic groups. This has already been reflected in the attitudes of some youth toward the CCC and the NYA as being injurious to one's social standing. Only to youth whose parents had struggled to attain some such status did this matter, the majority were willing to trade any they might have for the financial security which such work provided.

Another difficulty to be mentioned is the rapidly changing character of both the personnel and the program. In many places the program changed so rapidly that even the state director could hardly keep up with it. To expect him to carry the load of local change with the changes coming from Washington was to make a chameleon of him. Such instability does not produce a good program and is highly undesirable. With more careful planning for programs operating over longer periods of time, many of the mistakes in the localities would have been avoided.

There is also the question of leadership. The NYA and CCC programs probably suffered as much for lack of competent leadership as for any other single thing. Many of the educational advisers in the CCC camps were fumbling, inept, and ill trained. Many NYA supervisors could not possibly secure good leadership positions. In the CCC the advisers were more concerned with listing courses than with studying the educational needs of the enrollees. In California, for instance, they wanted to tie up the camp with the local school districts to secure funds and to secure secondary-

school credit for the courses they offered. The courses thus tended to become largely academic in nature, the same kind of thing from which these youth had fled. But another difficulty complicated this California picture. The state has a law whereby instructors for special day and evening classes who are trained for special needs can be secured by local districts and paid by the state. But to offer courses for secondary-school credit, teachers must secure the general secondary credential—an academic credential. Thus the camps were forced to choose between secondary-school credit and teachers especially suited for the work in forestry, carpentry, and metal mechanics, who could not secure regular state credentials. This condition—which can be charged to both the state school system and the Federal agencies—fastened an academic program upon the youth in the CCC camps in California. It not only spent state funds to give the youth a program they didn't need, but it forced them to choose between secondary-school recognition for their work and the kind of work more suited to their interests, needs, and abilities.

This friction over credit and standards has broken out frequently. There is obviously no good reason for duplicating equipment, programs, personnel, or effort. Sometimes, however, it seems to be the only way to affect change. The matter of credit, just mentioned, is one instance. Another illustration might be drawn from a recent junior-college conference in the West. The question came up as to the feasibility of the NYA taking away youth who ought to be in the regular junior-college shops. The school authorities were asked if they would then permit these youth to use their school shops. They replied they would if the youth would meet the entrance requirements for the junior college. Such attitudes on the part of educators have bred some of the conditions which exist. It is clearly a dog-in-the-manger attitude.

THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

It is clear that the Federal-youth agencies took over a need and performed a service to the youth of the nation. They worked chiefly with a group which the schools had ceased to serve and performed a service of relief and employment which the schools could not at the time have performed. For this service youth and the adults of the nation should continue to be grateful. Be it recognized that the agencies had difficulties and made mistakes, and be it recognized also that they raised a number of issues for study which should receive serious thought before they become a long-term policy. There is no need for either the youth agencies or the schools to feel that the mistakes need be repeated indefinitely, nor is there any reason to feel that the present policies of administration or programming need be the ones which we should continue indefinitely. *The major problem is not whether the NYA and CCC should be continued as they are, nor whether they should be combined and left independent or placed under the United States Office of Education. The chief problem facing us is the one of how to seize the opportunity now afforded us by the optimum employment of youth in industry and the combatant forces*

of the country to anticipate the needs which youth are now facing and are likely to face in the near future and to propose a sound program to care for them. This program is non-existent, and the continuation of heated discussions over the disposition of two Federal agencies, now greatly curtailed in program, is not likely to produce it.

FACTORS NEEDING CONSIDERATION

In dealing with this problem there are some factors we should keep in mind, both as school people and as workers with youth outside of school. We must realize first that the issue of caring for youth outside of school after the age of seventeen has been made a political one. There are jobs to be had for adults, power to be exercised, and large amounts of money to be spent. Such activities are likely to attract politicians.

In the second place, we must recognize that the issue of Federal support and control of local activities has been raised with great force the past ten years. Through the breakdown of local government and because of the countless number of activities which were formerly local but which now have taken on national significance, there has entered into the local community much Federal participation. Some of this has been welcomed and some of it has been bitterly opposed. It has been very difficult to divorce Federal support from Federal control. Due to the nature of the work which has been supplied youth—public work and work in national forests—it has not only been natural but necessary for the Federal government to carry a large measure of active participation. We are probably well into an era when the actuality of Federal participation in activities reaching into the community is ahead of our existing theoretical consideration or policy regarding it. Simple adherence to our existing policies will not suffice, nor will it prove anything.

In the third place, we need to recognize that youth have needs which we are not meeting adequately, except in a period when we are actually fighting a war requiring our total man power. Dental and medical service, employment, abundant work experience under supervision, participation in building community life, and adequate recreation are among those needs of youth which have never been adequately met in this country. Some of these have immediate educational significance, primarily, and some of them are in the areas for which we have not held the school responsible—medical service, employment, relief. The last few years educators have become increasingly interested in these needs, for we have recognized that they must be satisfied if youth are to be educated properly. But it does not follow that because they are somewhat educational in nature they should, therefore, be administered solely by the school. If these needs are to be met through the public-school program, we must tremendously enlarge the program, the support, the staff, and the equipment of the school. We must also remove the satisfaction of these needs from their present connection with Federal politics. If on the other hand we are going to handle

these through agencies other than the public schools, we must provide for proper co-ordination among the agencies involved.⁵

In the fourth place, we need to recognize the slowness with which our educational institutions move, the traditional nature of their programs, and the extent to which they are controllable by local interests. We in education have met with considerable resistance, particularly in secondary schools and colleges, the proposed changes in admission and curriculum requirements. We have been reluctant to break far away in our patterns of course offerings, our college-entrance requirements, our programs of teacher training and certification, and our recognition of new experiences for graduation credit. The result has been that over the country we lose approximately thirty-five per cent of our secondary-school freshmen before secondary-school graduation. The pressure of formalism has pushed the secondary school into offering courses to large numbers of pupils who are totally unsuited for them.

In the fifth place, we must recognize that the scope of education for youth has become so extended in the past twenty-five years that secondary-school teachers find it difficult to keep informed about all the factors and agencies affecting youth. They also experience the problem of knowing enough about the social scene and the individual to plan a feasible program of education. An adequate program depends upon the concerted guidance and counselling of all those dealing with the varied phases of our complex culture. Teachers need the assistance of those who work with youth outside of school. There was a time when the nature of the school program could be determined alone by the teachers and administrators, for the school did not flow over into social life as it does today. But if we are to extend our concept of the range and breadth of education, we must along with this be ready to extend and reorganize our concepts of control, organization, administration, and financing.

In the sixth and final place, we need to recognize that some of the problems that youth and society are facing are such that they can be dealt with locally but there are other problems which cannot be handled locally, it being necessary to deal with them through national planning. To say that the work in restoring our national forests can be handled by local systems is to be impractical. No political or physical units exist for such treatment. If the school assumes responsibility for giving relief aid, we will need to stray far from present policies. To say that the school should give every type of instruction and supervision that affects the life of youth is to assume a questionable position.

NEEDS TO BE MET

With these assumptions, which each reader should question for himself, let us indicate some of the general broad lines of reorganization which might be discussed by educational groups. We indicated first that there were needs to be met. This, of course, is the tap root of any school program.

⁵See suggestions in *Youth and the Future*. Washington, D. C.: American Youth Commission 1942. Part III.

These needs are both individual and social. Youth, for instance, need schooling, both in the areas of general social competence and in the areas of vocational and professional education. This the school is best equipped and experienced to give, if we at the same time are willing to think through the ways in which adequate work experience in office, factory, and field can be accomplished, supervised, credited, and financed. Youth also need employment, part-time and full-time. Actual work, upon which youth may spend their energy, may be partially supplied by local groups, but much of it must necessarily become public work locally and in large public areas. If youth are to feel that they are contributing to the nation, they must engage in *real* work, not work temporarily made because of the breakdown of our economy. This may be work of social significance to the public—capital investment for all of us—but it must be respected the same as work for a private corporation.

Youth need medical and dental services. The school has served successfully in contributing to health for a long time. This it can continue to do with greater effectiveness than any other agency outside of the home. But the schools, except in a very few isolated instances, have not entered into the field of medical and dental service. There is precedent for this in Sweden, for instance, but not in this country. Yet we are constantly faced with figures from public-health workers, from Federal commissions, and from the armed forces indicating that youth need medical services. We are able to give such service in this country, for we have the knowledge, the equipment, and the money to make it possible. Yet it is not being done. It is not likely, due to the forces of opposition at work, that we shall for some time be able to do this through the schools. This is not just a local problem; it is national and state in scope, and as we select men for the armed services it becomes international in scope. The need exists; it is not being met; it can be satisfied.

There is also need for recreation, not only for body building but for building and maintaining morale and sound mental health. There is enough land, water, money, and leadership to provide all the recreation which every youth in this country needs. The schools have assumed some responsibility here, but in every community voluntary and governmental agencies have supplemented their services, some of which are financed by the locality, some by the state, and some by the Federal government. This need is educational, too, but we cannot solve the problem by attempting to take it all over for education.

One might go on with other needs, such as a need for a spiritual development, a need for active participation in defense work, a need to build a home. These are all educational in some respects; at least they are all susceptible to improvement through education. We cannot today separate the activities of education, social service, and work as sharply as we could at one time. To say that education is the study of a problem is too narrow, but when we move outside the area of instruction we get into work supervision, recreational direction, employment, health. Thus the range of edu-

cational responsibility is extended. With this extension comes the problem of trying to fit it into a framework that traditionally has provided chiefly for formal instruction. It gives us trouble, and the more we push the direction of experience into those activities outside the school, the more acute becomes the controversy. We need to recognize that as we extend the range we need also to re-examine the structure. Here is a real need that has been met too frequently in education by resorting to frameworks set up primarily for another purpose.

COMMUNITY-YOUTH COUNCILS

It seems that it should be possible to arrive at a framework which would grow out of the nature of the need. There has been a tendency the last few years to co-ordinate local agencies. This meets a real need and maintains an accepted principle. The plan of reorganization then could start with the establishment of local Community-Youth Councils. These councils would become the centralizing body for studying the various kinds of activities that could be handled locally. It might be made up of representatives of voluntary and governmental agencies in the community and would be the center for the discussion of youth programs. It could prevent needless overlapping of functions, it could decide upon new responsibilities, functions, and organizations, and it could assure a comprehensive program for all youth rather than only for a restricted group. All responsibilities assumed by youth could be cleared through its councils. It should be presided over by a person especially qualified to direct youth-activity programs. It would probably function best with a full-time executive, an individual employed by the city or county, although this is not at all essential. This person, if selected, should be well trained in all phases of planning for youth work—recreation, employment, welfare, delinquency, health, and schooling. He need be broadly rather than specially trained. We need someone in the community to look at the total pattern we are making and should not hold him responsible for especial scholarship, even in one field.

If this local council were established the employment agency, the school, the recreation groups, the public-health department, the juvenile-correction workers, the social-welfare workers, and the religious-education groups, and others could hold membership on the council. The council would get its power either by the force of its effectiveness, or by virtue of its connection with local government. The community could easily grow to look with disfavor upon those things of which this council disapproved. Through active publicity it could frown upon new adventures which were either unnecessary or were directly overlapping, be they Federally proposed or purely voluntary. Public opinion would also work to keep the council responsive to the increasing needs of youth in the community. The setup proposed would not need in any way to interfere with the existing financial policies for the school and other governmental services vital to youth, existent or non-existent. The chief function of the council would be to keep a balanced youth program operating in the com-

munity by drawing upon the work of local-, state-, and Federal-planning commissions, by studying community needs, by co-ordinating services and by securing proper financing.

FEDERAL RESPONSIBILITIES

In addition to this organization of local agencies, there remains the area of public work on property which belongs to all of us—national forests, national parks, and land reclaimed or in need of reclaiming which is being taken over or controlled by the Federal government. Responsibility for this work should be centralized in the Federal government. Work in these areas is now being handled by such agencies as the Department of Interior and the Department of Agriculture. Youth should be brought into these areas for public work, especially up to a certain age, say twenty-four. The work of youth in these areas needs to be centralized in a Federal bureau and passed on down to local directors in the Federal region or resource region which might be established. Medical service, recreation, work, and additional schooling would all be assumed as a unit in these Federal areas or camps.

FINANCING THE PROGRAM

In financing such a program, an arrangement is proposed for discussion. Direct appropriation for the various social services now operating in the state with Federal assistance would be continued undisturbed. This money would get to the localities whenever it was shown that the need existed and that necessary standard requirements of program, equipment, and personnel had been met. Public health and schooling are operating in this way, and such a plan could be extended to provide in like fashion for state department of recreation and employment. Plans of Federal financing for work experience, while youth are in school, similar to the ones applying to the public-health work authorized by the Federal Security Act could be used.⁶ This plan provides for the funds appropriated by the Federal government to be given to a single state agency, to be designated or established, and to charge this agency with the administration and supervision of the program. Money is then given by this state agency to local communities in terms of needs, population, and ability and willingness to meet standards set for programs and personnel. This plan could work for education, employment, recreation, public health, social welfare, and juvenile correction. This is simple and could become an effective plan of administration and finance. It would also tie the work of these agencies very closely to the community. It is realized, of course, that the plan will break down if the local community councils are weak and ineffective. But if we continue locally to do things weakly and ineffectively, we will have reason for centralized planning and control, and Federal control will supersede local control. The best bulwark against centralized control is local effectiveness; if we fall down locally, central control is necessary. There is no other alternative.

⁶See Social Security Act. Title VI. Public Health Work. *Compilation of the Social Security Laws* Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board. 1941. p. 36-38.

For the agencies dealing with youth at work in the restoration of the public resource areas, there is no need to tie them to a long series of state and local financing and administration. They should be financed directly from the Federal bureau in which the work is located. This financing should be adequate to provide the total services needed in the camps established—equipment for recreation and education, medical services, personnel trained for the job, work supervision and training. There is also no need for asking that these workers, educational or otherwise, meet the certification requirements of each state in which the camp is located. These requirements differ so widely that only confusion would result. There should be substituted rigid requirements for each type of position required and only applicants meeting these requirements should be appointed. The determination of the program and the requirements for personnel for these camps could be determined, for instance, by a board made up by appointments from the United States Office of Education, the Forest Service, the Agricultural Service, the Public Health Department, and the director of the agency in which this work is located.

It would seem that in order to tie this work for youth together, it would be well to have the program of health, employment, education, recreation, juvenile correction center in the Federal Security Agency, as much of this work already does reside there now. In view of the tremendous amount of work now being done by the United States Office of Education and due further to the fact that many of the gains desired cannot be secured or administered through educational channels, it would seem wise to have each of these bureaus function as a part of a whole, rather than plan to finance programs through channels which could not administer them locally. This would provide, then for a closely knit unit of essential and related services being provided locally or nationally as the nature of the work dictated. It would provide further for adequate Federal assistance and for clear cut lines of administration. This would give to the United States Office of Education the function of in-school instruction, work experience, and scholarship aid for youth. It would give to separate divisions co-ordinate with the Office of Education the jobs of medical and dental service, employment, social welfare, juvenile correction and public work.

To be sure there are many details which should be explored further and adjusted, but the basic framework is proposed for consideration as an alternative to some other proposals which have been made. This plan also provides for channels of immediate action which can be set up so that action can flow without too much confusion. If the whole of the program is given to an agency which cannot administer it in local and state communities, the program will only be further burdened by delay.

PLANNING COMMISSIONS ARE NEEDED

Two things are needed now to carry out this program. One of these is a national planning commission, supplemented by state commissions, and the other is a program of leadership training. It is impossible to

expect all the local communities in the United States to voluntarily and without suggestion prepare an effective program to care for the complete needs of youth. No local group will be able to think of all the things which need to be done, neither will they be able to discover the needs of long term planning. In order to aid these local community-youth councils, there should be established national and state commissions to begin work immediately and to continue to make adequate studies, develop standards, and propose programs for satisfying youth needs in local communities. The programs should be extensive enough to meet all youth needs and varied enough to meet differences in local communities in this country. To prepare such a program the plan of present commissions could be utilized at once and additional ones made up of representatives from education, recreation, employment, juvenile correction, health, social welfare, and from the Forest and Agricultural Service could be set up as needed.

TRAINED YOUTH LEADERS ARE NEEDED

In addition to the planning commissions, we have definite need for a large group of well-trained youth leaders to assume responsible positions of leadership in local, state, and national offices after the war. These leaders should have training in all the fields indicated in the needs suggested for youth. The youth needed to take this program of training should be carefully selected, and there should be provided for them a sufficient training program. This program should be a combination of university study and field experience. If we could at once select one thousand youth—men and women—and build up a training program to be offered in ten of our leading universities, we would have an immediate reserve of well-trained youth leaders who could take over the local-, state-, and Federal-adminis-



—*Student Life*

NYA pupils assist the school nurse by recording data concerning teeth condition as revealed in the regular school-health examination.

trative responsibilities of leadership. This training program could continue until sufficient leadership had been built up to care for the local need.

In planning for this training program for leaders, the present NYA public-service program in California offers an excellent pattern for study.⁷ This program, worked out by the California College Work Council, provides for the training of prospective public servants by offering them a twelve-month program of study and work. The NYA offers supervision of part of the work and the university offers the instructional part of the program. To make this plan work it would be necessary at once to draw plans for the content of the program and to offer sufficient scholarship from the Federal government—say \$500 to \$1000—to select and send the proper youth to these training centers. Whatever the plan eventually becomes, the need exists, and if we are really serious about saving democracy through building up each community, then we have no alternative but to provide proper leadership.

SUMMARY

In working out the problem of youth agencies in the coming years two things seem to be important. The first is that the function of education of youth is a responsibility of society which has been delegated to the public school. The school should, therefore, assume and discharge this obligation without reference to molding all youth into a common pattern. The total needs of youth must be met and adequate financing must be supplied—local, state, and Federal. Each school should adjust its program to the needs the youth manifest. *Youth must come first; not school subjects.*

A second consideration is that youth at certain ages need employment. This employment in our system of economics should be supplied by private industry. However, there is not the slightest reason to believe that this will be done; therefore, provision should be made for public work with social acceptance for youth. This should be done through a Federal-youth agency—one, not two. This agency should supply work, medical care, food and clothing, recreation, self-control, and should make provision for continued education for the youth in its care. If these youth are in communities where schools exist there should be worked out a plan of education through the schools, duplication of institutions is not necessary, whereby each youth could work part of the time and attend school part of the time. But the schooling offered these youth must be adjusted to their needs. *If the schools cannot or will not make such adjustment in their curriculums, the Federal-youth agency should set up under its direction a school which will do this.*

In cases where the youth are in camps far distant from schools, it is probably preferable to set up school facilities in the camps under the direction of the youth agency operating under a policy determined by the Federal Security Agency and the United States Office of Education.

⁷See *A Plan of Action for Youth*. Los Angeles, California: NYA State Headquarters, California College Work Council, NYA. December 1941. Mimeo. 5 p.

Youth need schooling, work, medical care, food and clothing, and recreation. If the school people think they can effectively take over all these functions of feeding children, clothing them, and providing work and relief pay for them as well as medical care and schooling, then they should have a chance to do it with proper financing. If, on the other hand, these things are not offered to youth and cannot be successfully supplied, the school people are deliberately injuring children by asking to discharge a function which they cannot assume. Even though the school should be the center here, it is not at all clear that the functions suggested should be administered *by* the school even though the agencies responsible for the services may work *through* the school. This appears to be far better than to allow the school to take over completely, administer relief employment, medical care, and supply the necessities of life. The state is obligated to do this to children; it may choose the school as its agent to perform these services, or it may choose other divisions of government to perform the functions through the school. The question should be considered. The one answer is not yet clear.

IMMEDIATE ACTION IS NECESSARY

During the time we are now engaged in actual combat, we are being relieved of the strain of finding employment for a large number of our youth. This relief should give us time and circumstance to build the kind of organization we wish to adopt after victory is won. It must not be lost on the rocks of delay or on our own inability to plan for the years to follow. The victory can be lost at home, even though it is won abroad. In this period of lull from excessive attention to the masses of youth, *We must plan for the time when they will return home.*

Denver, Colorado

June 28 to July 2, 1942

Plan to attend the annual summer meeting of the NEA as well as the meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Monday and Tuesday, June 29 and 30. Joint meetings with two other departments of the NEA have been arranged.

Instructional Leadership in the Junior and Senior High Schools of Denver

GILBERT S. WILLEY

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FOR THE LAST TWENTY YEARS the administration of the public schools in Denver has sought to utilize the talents and abilities of all members of the educational staff. In the early 1920's large amounts of money were budgeted annually to make it possible for regular teachers to spend months and sometimes a year or more in preparing courses of study which furnished the basis for instructional practices in the Denver Public Schools. Those teachers who gave full time to this work consulted administrators, supervisors, and other teachers in the system and read extensively of outstanding curriculum practices in other school systems. In fact, authority for curriculum content and instructional practices has been vested largely with the classroom teachers of Denver since the beginning of the curriculum revision program nearly two decades ago.

In the early 1930's the five senior high schools of Denver became one of thirty units involved in the Eight-Year Study sponsored by the Progressive Education Association. During the period of this study an increasing emphasis was placed on permitting pupils, parents, and lay citizens to plan with school people concerning what should be taught in the senior high schools. This trend caused a gradual tapering off of the central development of courses of study by teacher committees. Curriculum committees became more concerned with the problem of how the various subject-matter areas could function more vitally in the lives of boys and girls. Teacher groups began to study the life interests and needs of the adolescent. In each senior high school the instructional practices of some teachers began to reflect the combined thinking of pupils, parents, and teachers. Gradually some administrators and a few teachers in the ten junior high schools became interested in those practices of promise evolving in the senior high schools and before the end of the study were engaged in some form of instructional experimentation centered about the life concerns of pupils. There was left the task of devising some plan whereby all members of the faculties in the various junior and senior high schools would be working together on the program.

During the last three years, through the participation of the Denver Public Schools in the national study of teacher education sponsored by the Commission on Teacher Education, insights have developed as to how to conserve those instructional gains made during the Eight-Year Study and how to involve an entire school faculty in the improvement of instruction.

BUILDING COMMITTEES ON INSTRUCTION

In the different schools, committees on instruction have been created. These are composed mainly of teachers. In the organization of these com-

mittees, an effort has been made to have represented the various interests and points of view of the total faculty. These representative groups, known as *Building Committees on Instruction*, have met regularly to consider instructional problems in their respective buildings. These committees, through recommendations submitted to faculties for discussion, acceptance, modification, or rejection, have been instrumental in assisting faculties in arriving at a unified approach to a study of their instructional programs. With a growing emphasis on the classroom unit as an important center for curriculum development, teachers find these committees on instruction helpful in assisting them in the solution of many new problems which arise through planning units with pupils, other teachers, parents, and lay citizens.

BUILDING CO-ORDINATORS OF INSTRUCTION

A single faculty working together on its instructional program, defining common objectives, agreeing upon ways and means of evaluating processes and outcomes of teaching, exchanging teaching materials, and collaborating on resources for enriching pupil experiences, has created a need for closer co-ordination of effort among its members. To meet this expressed need a co-ordinator of instruction has been provided in each building, with some of the larger units having two or three part-time co-ordinators. As a rule, these co-ordinators teach at least half-time and spend the remainder of the day in assisting teachers in finding materials, suggesting to certain teachers how their work may contribute to the work of other teachers, assisting in developing units of work, and assembling teaching materials. The job of the *building co-ordinator* has been evolved by the co-ordinators themselves, first as they carried out their functions separately in their own buildings and later as they met centrally to exchange information regarding practices which had proved effective in their various schools. During the present year the work of the building co-ordinator has become quite clearly defined and sub-committees are at work studying how certain central services of the school system may be used more effectively in individual schools. Certain schools have made instructional advances along one line; others have advanced along different lines. Central meetings of building co-ordinators make it possible for other schools to profit directly from what a single school finds promising along instructional lines. The building co-ordinator has become an important person in unifying the work of an entire faculty, working at all times in close touch with the principal's office and the building committee on instruction.

ORGANIZATION FOR CITY-WIDE CO-ORDINATION

As building faculties gained experience in developing programs best suited to the life interests and needs of the pupils in attendance, there developed the desire and need for exchange of ideas among staff members from various buildings. Also, faculties frequently became involved in consideration of problems which were city-wide in scope. To provide for this exchange of ideas, central *Committees on Instruction* were developed, one

representing the junior high schools and one the senior high schools.¹ Each central committee is composed of principals and classroom teachers, elected in most instances by the various faculties. These central committees on instruction give consideration to instructional policies of city-wide significance for all junior high schools or all senior high schools. Curriculum committees wishing to acquaint all faculties with certain trends appear before these central committees to present certain points of view. Teacher representatives from buildings occasionally present experiences with certain curriculum practices, thus making it possible for all members present to profit from experiences in other schools. Surveys of school practices are frequently cleared through these central committees.

The central committees on instruction sometimes become concerned with problems which involve the entire school system. Such problems are referred to an *Executive Board* made up of three representatives chosen by each of the central committees on instruction, plus a representative from the supervisors and directors' group, representative from the central administrative staff, and the three persons assisting in the central department of instruction. This executive board determines how problems of city-wide significance may be attacked and gives general consideration to ways and means of assisting teachers in the improvement of their work. Another important function is that of co-ordinating the activities of the central committees on instruction.

GENERAL SUPERVISORY SERVICES

Supplementing the work of the building committees on instruction, the central committees on instruction, and the executive board has been the assistance rendered by general supervisors and directors. Also, four people from the central offices have been designated as *general program co-ordinators* to work part of the time in the fifteen junior and senior high schools. Each program co-ordinator is responsible for meeting regularly with groups of teachers in three or four buildings and determining when the services and special competencies of the other three can be utilized in any one building. Thus over a period of time all four general co-ordinators will have assisted with the instructional programs in all of the junior and senior high schools, the services of each being called upon when there is specific and genuine need. These co-ordinators are really resource persons assisting faculties in the general direction of their programs and bringing to any single faculty the breadth of view gained through contacts with other buildings. In reality, they become identified as members of the various faculties and are accepted as such by teachers. Frequent meetings of the program co-ordinators with the assistant superintendent in charge of secondary education serve as a clearinghouse where all may become familiar with instructional trends in all buildings. At these meetings general agreement is reached regarding

¹There is also a central *Committee on Instruction* representing the elementary-school staffs of Denver which serves in a capacity similar to that described for junior and senior high schools. The present article deals only with instructional practices in the junior and senior high schools.

those phases of the program which should be encouraged for further development throughout the system. Consideration is also given to the role which the program co-ordinator should play in assisting teachers.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

The following concepts of instructional development in the junior and senior high schools of Denver are generally understood by all those working with the program and serve as a background for approach to the many problems involved:

1. The responsibility for instructional leadership in a building should rest with the principal. Through democratic procedures he should delegate responsibility to members of his staff and recognize the contributions each member may make to a developing program.
2. The entire faculty within a building should plan the program of instruction for that building. Each faculty should consider its respective total program in the light of the needs and interests of the boys and girls attending that school.
3. A program is effective only as it represents the combined thinking of all faculty members, pupils, and representative lay citizens.
4. Instructional changes of a fundamental nature within a building should be made only as they are accepted by the majority of teachers in that building. When inaugurated under these conditions, such departures should receive faculty endorsement and support.
5. Any faculty should feel free to develop a program which in its opinion best serves the life interests of the boys and girls and the community in which the school is located.
6. The teacher and a group of pupils constitute the fundamental unit in curriculum building, and instructional aid should be centered around the needs of each classroom unit.

GENERAL APPRAISAL OF THE PROGRAM

Two years' experience with these newer instructional leadership trends has resulted in some interesting observations indicated as follows:

1. Principals have accepted the challenge of instructional leadership within buildings and have liberated many teachers to exercise creative instructional leadership.
2. In those buildings where greatest progress has been made, a new professional spirit is generally manifest. Good will and co-operation exist now where jealousies and misunderstandings sometimes crept in.
3. Moving slowly, with every person contributing to the program, is of greater value than moving rapidly with a few teachers involved and the majority of teachers left "in the dark" as to what is developing.
4. One cannot predict where creative ability and leadership lie. Teachers and principals near retirement age have shown initiative and instructional leadership when given the opportunity to contribute to a program with the realization that their suggestions would be considered and utilized.

5. As a rule, teachers and principals want to give their best to the youth whom they serve. Many have been put on the defensive because of reasons difficult to isolate, but they are human beings, and when treated as such will respond in an unusually effective manner.
6. When provided freedom and opportunity, teachers become genuinely interested in the growth and development of children and become concerned over adjusting school experiences to minister to the life concerns and needs of pupils.
7. The classroom teacher has a unique position which should be recognized. In his realm he can become as expert as any other person. Supervisors and principals may assist, but should not dictate.
8. In buildings where teachers have earnestly explored the immediate and inescapable concerns of youth, there has developed the realization that the pupils themselves, as well as the parents and community, furnished the richest resource for developing a program.
9. The effective principal is an astute social engineer, filled with imagination, sensitive to the feelings of others, and unfaltering in his positive leadership toward goals agreed upon by the group.
10. The possibilities of group action, when once harnessed to function smoothly, seem limitless. Individuals have been challenged to perform tasks which a year ago seemed entirely beyond their realm of thinking. The reporting by subcommittees of their findings to faculties for purposes of discussion, with subsequent modification, acceptance, or rejection, has formed a common means of solidifying group action and effort.
11. In formulating school objectives and in setting up plans for evaluating processes and outcomes of teaching, faculties have developed a commonness of purpose which has obvious attendant power.

SUMMARY

At the close of this description of instructional leadership trends in the Denver Public Schools, it should be pointed out that creative instructional leadership is being centered with classroom teachers to a large extent. Principals working with their faculties as a unit constitute another important phase of leadership. Central committees serve as clearinghouses for the exchange of ideas which have system-wide significance. Building co-ordinators and general program co-ordinators assist in developing programs already under way in buildings. Central administrative and supervisory officers are effective in creative instructional leadership to the degree that they work in schools with principals, teachers, pupils, and parents and become intimately acquainted with the problems faced by these groups of people, and to the degree that mutual confidence and understanding are established among all those responsible for any given instructional program. In general, the curriculum in the Denver secondary schools is now being built "on the spot" in the classrooms and buildings; it is not to be found in newly written courses of study which, however valuable they may be, have been superseded by what at present seems to be a more promising plan.

Adolescent Needs

GERTRUD E. NOAR

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ALTHOUGH THERE HAS accumulated an exceptionally fine body of literature dealing with adolescent needs, it is difficult to find anywhere a statement of general principles which can be used as the basis for discussions in faculty groups. Those which follow have been formulated as the result of extensive reading of the reports of the investigations launched by various commissions, study of the students in the laboratory provided by the Gillespie Junior High School, and continuous discussion with teachers and administrators.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

1. If an adequate curriculum is to be provided for any group of pupils their immediate and remote needs must be determined and used as a basis for learning experiences.
2. Needs grow out of the individual himself and out of the society or culture in which the individual lives.
3. The American junior high school is required to provide experiences which will result in successful immediate living in and in preparation for adult life in a democracy.
4. The peculiar immediate needs of pupils in the junior high school are the result of the acceleration of physical, mental, and emotional growth which characterizes this period of life.
5. Individual growth varies in time, rate, and sex. These variations are so great that knowledge of the individual is essential if his needs are to be met.
6. Failure to meet the immediate needs of the individual may result in conflicts which inhibit learning. As soon as his needs are met, the adolescent is ready to be concerned with social problems.
7. The developmental tasks with which the adolescent requires help are:
 - a. physical growth and development
 - b. emancipation from parents
 - c. understanding and establishing satisfactory heterosexual relationships, and
 - d. finding a personal role in society—this involves economic independence.
8. The development of well-adjusted, physically sound, adequately prepared individuals is of primary importance in the present emergency in which conservation of human resources is vital.
9. The nature of the present and probable future world order is such that the adolescent needs broad and deep knowledge of many peoples, places, processes, and practices which have not as yet been included in the offerings of the junior high school.

Do Principals Supervise and How?

A Survey of Supervisory Practices in the Secondary Schools of Pennsylvania¹

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SUPERVISION HAS BEEN recognized for a long time as one of the most important responsibilities of the principal. The elementary-school principals early accepted the challenge of supervision, but the secondary-school principals, as a group, have been somewhat more reluctant to accept the responsibility for exercising instructional leadership. An examination of the professional literature treating the problems of the secondary school shows that very little attention was given to the supervisory problems of the principal until the early 1930's. Since then at least seven textbooks² devoted exclusively to supervision on the secondary-school level have been published and many accounts have appeared in educational journals dealing with the supervisory function of the secondary-school principal. In addition there have been several textbooks and yearbooks published which have dealt with the supervision of instruction in general. Judging, then, from the amount of professional literature and also the frequency with which supervision is the subject of discussion in educational meetings of one sort or another, it would appear that the supervisory responsibility of the secondary-school principal is at last receiving the recognition that its importance justifies.

THE PROBLEM

In view of the present effort of the secondary school to adjust its instruction to the needs of youth, it was felt by the writer that it would be helpful to the principals of Pennsylvania and to others interested in the problems of secondary education to be cognizant of the general practices that are employed in stimulating, co-ordinating, and integrating the instructional activities of the secondary schools. Specifically, the purpose of this investigation was to ascertain the status of affairs with respect to the following:

¹Cost of printing the questionnaire and postage was financed by the Pennsylvania Branch of the Department of Secondary-School Principals. Co-operation and supervision was also given.

²Clement, J. A., and Clement, J. H. *Cooperative Supervision in Grades Seven to Twelve*. New York: The Century Co., 1930.

Alberty, H. B., and Thayer, V. T. *Supervision in the Secondary School*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1931.

Knudsen, C. W. *Evaluation and Improvement of Teaching (In Secondary Schools)*. New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1932.

Douglas, H. R., and Boardman, C. W. *Supervision in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934.

Collings, Ellsworth. *Supervisory Guidance of Teachers in Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934.

Briggs, T. H. *Improving Instruction*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.

Foster, H. H., Wetzel, W. A., and Lawrence, Bertha. *High School Supervision*. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1939.

1. The principals' teaching responsibilities and administrative and supervisory assistance.
2. Prevailing types of supervisory organization.
3. The principals' practices with respect to classroom observation.
4. The principals' evaluation of their supervisory activities and services.
5. The more urgent supervisory problems now facing the principals.

THE PROCEDURE

The questionnaire was employed as the instrument for collecting the data herein reported. Out of a total of 545 instruments placed in the hands of the secondary-school principals during the school year of 1940-41, the data reported on 311 of the returned questionnaires were sufficiently complete to be included in the study.

There are several reasons for assuming that the practices reported by the principals were fairly representative of supervisory practices in the secondary schools of Pennsylvania. In 1940-41 the Pennsylvania Education Directory listed 1287 secondary schools. *Table I* shows the classification of the schools and the number of schools from each classification included in this investigation.

TABLE I. NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN PENNSYLVANIA AND NUMBER REPRESENTED IN STUDY

<i>Type of School</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>	
	<i>State</i>	<i>Study</i>
Six-year Junior-Senior High School	332	118
Five-year Junior-Senior High School	8	2
Four-year Junior-Senior High School	1	0
Three-year Senior High School	72	55
Two-year Senior High School	2	1
Four-year High School	471	100
Three-year High School	62	0
Two-year High School	48	0
Four-year Junior High School	55	8
Three-year Junior High School	169	23
Four- and Six-year Vocational Schools	53	4
Trade School	14	0
Total	1287	311

It is well accepted that the size of enrollment of a secondary school should have a great deal of influence upon the nature of the administrative and supervisory activities of the principal. Some notion of the representativeness of the sampling of supervisory data in terms of size of enrollment may be gained from *Table 2*. For obvious reasons enrollment data for only the four major types of secondary schools are included.

Another measure was employed to determine the adequacy of the sampling of the supervisory data reported. At the annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Branch of the Department of Secondary-School Principals in 1940, 210 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the principals in

TABLE 2. ENROLLMENT IN FOUR MAJOR TYPES OF
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

<i>Type of School</i>	<i>School Enrollment</i>	
	<i>Median</i>	<i>Range</i>
Six-year Junior-Senior High School	420	110-2620
Three-year Senior High School	935	33-3920
Four-year High School	360	75-4577
Three-year Junior High School	685	115-1420

attendance. One hundred nine of these instruments were returned and the data thereon were immediately tabulated. The writer then sent 335 additional questionnaires to the principals of secondary schools who were not present at the annual meeting. Two hundred two usable reports from this group were returned. Early in the tabulation of the second group of reports it became obvious that no new supervisory practices, problems, or trends were being revealed. However, tabulation proceeded until the data from the entire group of 202 were compiled. Thus it would seem that, even though no information was received on supervisory practices from secondary schools classified as two- and three-year high schools and trade schools, the data herein reported are sufficiently representative of secondary-school supervisory practices to reveal a reasonably reliable picture of the status of supervisory affairs in Pennsylvania.

**THE PRINCIPAL'S TEACHING RESPONSIBILITIES AND
ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY ASSISTANCE**

The principal must have the assistance of other members of his staff in handling the routine problems of an organizational and administrative nature and in making available to the pupil different kinds of specialized school services, if he is to exert his full leadership in improving and co-ordinating the activities of the modern secondary school. The principal cannot be an instructional leader in the school if his energies and personal attention are devoted to teaching, or to office routine, or to individual counseling, or to making minor administrative adjustments. He will be seriously handicapped in performing his real function as an educational leader unless he has assistance with the practical problems that emerge out of the functioning secondary school. Also, it would appeal axiomatic that as the size of the school increases the attendant administrative and supervisory responsibilities and activities of the principal would accordingly increase. Freedom from teaching responsibilities and office routine, particularly for the principals of the larger schools, becomes imperative.

It seems pertinent, therefore, to assess the situation in the Pennsylvania secondary schools with regard to the extent to which the principals of schools having larger pupil enrollments devoted a decreasing amount of time to teaching and office routine and received an increasing amount of assistance from the personnel of the teaching staff for administrative and

supervisory duties. To ascertain the actual conditions the data submitted on the questionnaires relative to this consideration were partitioned according to the size of pupil enrollment, beginning with schools of 100 or fewer in pupil population, then 101-200, 201-300, and so on. Specifically the following information was tabulated for the schools in each classification:

1. Principal's teaching load
2. Full- or part-time assistant principal
3. Departmental headship
4. Full- or part-time secretarial assistance
5. Full- or part-time girls' adviser
6. Full- or part-time boys' adviser
7. Full- or part-time supervisor of activities
8. Full- or part-time vocational or educational counselor

The analysis of the data bearing on the above mentioned aspects of the schools showed that there was considerable variation in the size of the schools at which assistance to the principals in one form or another became evident. The only exception was with regard to the extent of the principals' teaching responsibilities. Thus it appeared that on the basis of the data relating to this important phase of the work of the principal that the schools may be classified into three rather distinct groups:

1. Schools of 100 or fewer in pupil enrollment in which 100 per cent of the principals taught. There were seven schools in this group.
2. Schools between 101 and 800 in size in which the incidence of teaching by the principal and also the load of those principals who had teaching responsibilities decreased progressively as the schools increased in pupil enrollments. For example, 90 per cent of the principals in schools between 101 and 200 had teaching responsibilities, 80 per cent in schools between 201 and 300, and 71 per cent in schools with a pupil enrollment between 301 and 400. This decrease continued until only 42 per cent of the principals taught in schools between 701 and 800 in size. There were 214 schools in this classification.
3. Schools of 801 and more in enrollments in which very few principals had teaching responsibilities. There were 90 schools in this group.

The foregoing classification, in terms of incidence of teaching on the part of the principals, seems to embody three reasonably distinct groups of schools. In the small schools of 100 or fewer pupils all principals have teaching responsibilities. In the schools between 101 and 800 the incidence of the teaching-principal decreases as the schools increase in size. According to the original data one may conclude that in general after a secondary school reaches 800 in pupil enrollment the principal ceases to carry teaching responsibilities. This observation is supported by the fact that while 42 per cent of the principals taught in schools between 701 and 800 in size the number of principals teaching dropped to 8 per cent for schools between 801 and 900 in enrollment and continued to decrease in the schools above 900. Only 4 principals in the 90 schools with an enrollment of 801 or more pupils reported teaching duties.

It has been pointed out that heavy teaching responsibilities and the lack of secretarial service will limit the supervisory activities of the secondary-school principal. The time consumed by the principal while actually teaching in the classroom and in the necessary preparation and attendant routine connected with teaching constitutes a real handicap to any supervisory effort. If, in addition to teaching duties, the principal does not have adequate secretarial service, he will not have the time or energy to function in the capacity of an instructional leader. The actual number of principals with teaching responsibilities and the extent of full-time secretarial service may be seen in *Table 3*.

TABLE 3. NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS WITH TEACHING RESPONSIBILITIES AND FULL-TIME SECRETARIAL SERVICE

Status	School Enrollment					
	100 or fewer		101-800		801 or more	
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
Principals teaching	7	100	147	68.7	4	4.4
Full-time secretarial service	1	14.3	92	43.0	81	90.0

The situation with respect to secretarial assistance is especially to be observed. Approximately 86 per cent of the principals in schools of 100 or fewer in pupil enrollment and 57 per cent in schools between 101 and 800 do not have full-time secretarial service. Analysis of the questionnaires revealed that in several schools of 300 or fewer the principals not only taught a full program of classes but in addition they had no secretarial service in any form. In other schools pupils from the commercial department and NYA pupils assisted with the office routine.

The original data also revealed that the amount of full-time secretarial service remained approximately the same for schools up to 200 in pupil enrollment. There was, however, a sharp increase in the number of principals having full-time secretarial assistance in schools of 201 and more in enrollment. In the largest group of schools, having enrollments of 801 or more, 90 per cent of the principals had full-time secretarial assistance.

The extent of the teaching load of those principals who have teaching responsibilities must be taken into account if one is to come to any conclusion as to the seriousness of this handicap in keeping them from exercising their supervisory function. *Table 4* reveals the teaching load of the 158 principals having classroom assignments.

It is evident that the principals of the small secondary schools spend most of their time in classroom teaching. It is also apparent that teaching takes a large part of the principals' time in the schools between 101-800 in enrollments. Forty-five per cent of the principals in this group teach three or more classes daily. As was to be expected, the teaching load of the principals diminishes as the schools become larger. It will be recalled that ap-

TABLE 4. NUMBER OF DAILY CLASSES TAUGHT
BY PRINCIPALS

Number of Classes	School Enrollment					
	100 or fewer		101-800		801 or more	
	No. of Principals	Per Cent	No. of Principals	Per Cent	No. of Principals	Per Cent
6	1	14.3	1	.6	0	00
5	1	14.3	12	8.2	0	00
4	2	28.6	20	13.6	0	00
3	1	14.3	34	23.1	1	25
2	1	14.3	45	30.6	3	75
1	1	14.3	35	23.8	0	00
Total	7	100.1	147	99.9	4	100

proximately 31 per cent of the principals in this group had no teaching responsibilities.

The extent of the assistance given to the principal in the form of full- or part-time services of other members of his staff is presented in *Table 5*. Since the principals in the smallest schools do not have any assistance from other members of the staff, data are presented for only the two larger groups.

In very few secondary schools of 101-800 in pupil enrollment do the principals have the full-time service of other members of their faculties to whom they can delegate administrative and supervisory duties. The full-time services of assistant principals, deans of girls, and counselors were more in evidence in the group of schools having pupil enrollments of 801 or more than in the smaller schools. It is recognized, of course, that the title of a person is not always indicative of the real nature of his activities. With the exception of the department headship, the increase in part-time

TABLE 5. NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS HAVING FULL-
OR PART-TIME ADMINISTRATIVE AND
SUPERVISORY ASSISTANTS

Type of Assistant	School Enrollment			
	101-800		801 or more	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Full-time Assistant Principal	1	.5	18	20.0
Part-time Assistant Principal	62	29.0	28	31.1
Head of Department	42	19.6	45	50.0
Full-time Dean of Girls	0	0.0	14	15.6
Part-time Dean of Girls	56	26.2	25	27.8
Full-time Dean of Boys	1	.5	4	4.4
Part-time Dean of Boys	32	15.0	18	20.0
Full-time Supervisor of Activities				
Part-time Supervisor of Activities	31	14.5	16	17.8
Full-time Counselor	4	1.9	15	16.7
Part-time Counselor	49	22.9	27	30.0

assistants in schools of 801 or more pupils over those of 101-800 is slight. It is questionable, however, whether the part-time personnel have much time for the services that their titles imply. According to *Table 6* the time and attention of the part-time assistants are mainly devoted to teaching responsibilities.

TABLE 6. MEDIAN NUMBER OF CLASSES PER DAY TAUGHT BY PART-TIME ASSISTANTS

<i>Type of Assistant</i>	<i>School Enrollment</i>	
	<i>101-800</i> <i>Median No.</i> <i>of Classes</i>	<i>801 or more</i> <i>Median No.</i> <i>of Classes</i>
Assistant Principal	5.2	4.2
Head of Department	5.4	5.3
Dean of Girls	5.3	4.3
Dean of Boys	5.1	4.4
Supervisor of Activities	5.3	3.5
Counselors	4.5	3.5

It is only in the secondary schools over 801 in pupil enrollment that the teaching load of the part-time assistants has been reduced appreciably. Apparently the assistants in schools between 101 and 800 for the most part carry full-time teaching assignments.

After examining the foregoing analysis of the principals' teaching responsibilities and the assistance that they have with administrative and supervisory matters, it seems logical to conclude that the principals in the majority of schools are not free to exercise the supervisory function of their office. It is apparent that most of the secondary schools are under-staffed. As a result, the principals of these schools must attend to minor administrative detail as well as assuming responsibility for providing specialized pupil services. In addition to these obligations many have teaching duties. In view of the conditions it would seem impossible for the principals to supply the constructive educational leadership that the school and community need.

PREVAILING TYPES OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

The internal organization of the secondary school determines in a large measure the nature of the supervisory activities and practices that are engaged in by the principal and his staff. In fact, the effectiveness of the supervisory program is determined largely by the manner in which the school is organized for administrative and supervisory purposes. In this study an effort was made to determine the types of supervisory organization that now prevail in the secondary schools.

In schools of 800 or fewer in pupil enrollment the teacher-principal type of supervisory organization is by far the most dominant. This is a very simple type of organization wherein all supervisory responsibilities rest with the principal. As a matter of fact, the supervising principal or superintendent in many instances in which this type of organization obtained also participated in supervisory activities in the secondary school. The

TABLE 7. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS EMPLOYING DIFFERENT TYPES OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

Type of Supervision	School Enrollment					
	100 or fewer		101-800		801 or more	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Teacher-Principal	7	100	171	79.9	30	33.3
Department Head	0	0	42	19.6	45	50.0
Department Chairman	0	0	1	.5	6	6.6
Cabinet	0	0	0	0.0	3	3.3
Director of Instruction	0	0	0	0.0	2	2.2
Miscellaneous	0	0	0	0.0	4	4.4
Total	7	100	214	100.0	90	99.8

teacher-principal type of organization was employed exclusively in the small schools.

The departmental organization was the most commonly found in the largest group of schools. Fifty per cent of the schools of 801 or more in pupil population were organized on this basis. The department-chairman type was found in very few instances. This type of organization is to be distinguished from the department-head type according to the manner of selecting the incumbent and his tenure in office. The department head is usually appointed by his superior administrative officers according to seniority in many cases, for an indefinite term of office, while the department chairman is usually selected by the teachers and his tenure in office is subject to their judgment. The other types of organization were not found in any but the group of largest schools and constituted less than 10 per cent of this group.

Since the department-head type of organization prevailed in 50 per cent of the schools of over 800 in pupil population and in approximately 20 per cent of the schools having a pupil enrollment of 101-800, it was considered germane to this study to ascertain the extent to which these officials participated in some of the more important administrative and supervisory activities. *Table 8* reveals the situation with respect to the activities of the heads of departments.

One must conclude from the above data that the status of the department head, in terms of administrative and supervisory responsibilities, is not very well defined. It would appear, however, that he is more concerned with the curriculum and related aspects of the educational program than anything else. He is too occupied with teaching to assume responsibility for supervising the classroom work of the teachers of his department.

THE PRINCIPAL AND CLASSROOM SUPERVISION

Classroom supervision has long held an important place in the supervisory program of the elementary school. When the need for supervision in the secondary school became generally recognized, classroom observation was resorted to by the principal on the assumption that it would be an equally valuable supervisory activity on the secondary-school level. This activity became so closely associated with supervision in the minds of many

TABLE 8. NUMBER OF DEPARTMENT HEADS PARTICIPATING
IN SEVERAL MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE
AND SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

Activities	School Enrollment		
	101-800	801 or more	Number Per Cent
Responsible for selection of textbooks and the like	35	83.3	39 .86.7
Visits new teachers occasionally	31	73.8	20 44.4
Responsible for the formulation of curriculum	30	71.4	41 91.1
Conducts meetings of department	29	69.1	44 97.8
Responsible for supervision of school clubs	26	61.9	23 51.1
Participates in scheduling pupils to classes	24	57.1	25 55.6
Visits experienced teachers occasionally	22	52.4	24 53.3
Never visits experienced teachers	19	45.2	12 26.7
Consulted in the selection of teachers	15	35.7	20 44.4
Never visits new teachers	8	19.0	11 24.4
Consulted in salary adjustments	4	9.5	8 17.8
Visits new teachers regularly	3	7.1	14 31.1
Visits experienced teachers regularly	1	2.4	9 20.0

principals that they could not conceive of any supervisory effort that did not employ it to a greater or lesser extent. Therefore, it seemed advisable to ascertain the practices of the principals in Pennsylvania with respect to classroom observation.

Table 9 is conclusive evidence that observing the teacher at work in the classroom is still participated in by a large majority of secondary-school principals. More than 93 per cent of all principals employed this supervisory activity. However, it is also obvious that as the schools increase in size there is progressively less emphasis given to it. It seems that the larger the school the less visitation by the principal there is.

The fundamental purpose of the principal in visiting the teacher at work in the classroom is to obtain information that cannot be obtained in any other way; information that will enable the principal to assist the teacher in making instruction more effective. In fact, the value of classroom supervision as a supervisory service depends upon the insight of the supervisor in assessing the different phases of the teaching-learning situation. There is no doubt that the professionally alert principal who visits his teachers at work does so for certain specific purposes. An attempt was made in this investigation to obtain the principals' judgment of the value that

TABLE 9. THE PRINCIPALS' PRACTICES IN CLASSROOM
OBSERVATION

Practice	School Enrollment		
	100 or fewer	101-800	801 or more
Number of principals visiting classroom	6	198	86
Average number of visits annually to each teacher	12	10	6
Average length of each visit (in minutes)	48	38	34

they assigned to the several more commonly-stated purposes in classroom observation. The replies from 250 of the 311 principals responding were complete enough to include in this tabulation.

TABLE 10. NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS ASSIGNING CERTAIN VALUES TO SEVERAL PURPOSES IN VISITING THE CLASSROOM

<i>Purposes</i>	<i>Moderate or Very Valuable</i>		<i>Little or No Value</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
1. To ascertain the suitability of the work in terms of the pupils' needs, interests, and abilities	229	91.6	21	8.4
2. To rate the teacher's effectiveness	228	91.2	22	8.8
3. To encourage and assist the teacher in carrying on classroom experimentation	227	90.8	23	9.2
4. To assist the teacher in developing a wholesome pupil-teacher relationship	222	88.8	28	11.2
5. To suggest to the teacher the employment of specific techniques and devices and learning material peculiar to the subject field or fields in which the teacher is instructing	221	88.4	29	11.6
6. To help the teacher in making application of a general educational principle to his particular field of teaching	216	86.4	34	13.6
7. To keep the teacher stimulated to put forth his best effort	212	84.8	38	15.2
8. To inspect the work of the pupils	182	72.8	68	27.2
9. To detect defects in the teacher's personality	179	71.6	71	28.4
10. To observe the behavior of the pupils	178	71.2	72	28.8
11. To ascertain the needs of the teachers with regard to such aids as textbooks, equipment, general instructional materials	163	65.2	87	34.8
12. To help the teacher in providing for a socialized class period	163	65.2	87	34.8
13. To inspire the pupils to greater effort	159	63.6	91	36.4
14. To determine whether the teacher is following the course of study	133	53.2	117	46.8
15. To administer tests and examinations	112	44.8	138	55.2

It should be admitted at the outset that specific purposes to which the principals responded are not mutually exclusive. Each does, however, reflect a distinct emphasis in observation. All purposes were judged by 53 per cent or more of the principals to have moderate or great value with the exception of Number 15, "visiting the classroom to administer tests and examinations." Even this purpose was considered to be valuable by 45 per cent of the principals.

A careful examination of *Table 10* leads one to conclude that the judgments of the principals relative to the values of the several purposes are not entirely in accord with modern supervisory theory and practice. For example, more than 91 per cent of the principals believed that "to rate the teacher's effectiveness" (No. 2) was a valuable purpose to achieve in visiting the classroom. Yet it would appear that observing the teacher for rating

purposes would tend to direct the attention of the principal to those features of the classroom that were not most fruitful for obtaining information that would enable him to assist the teacher to improve her work. It is also difficult to understand why so many principals believed that any lasting effect would come from visiting the classroom "to inspire the teacher and pupils to greater effort" (Nos. 7 and 13). An examination of this table in its entirety would seem to indicate that the principals do not have a clear-cut conception of the important functions of classroom observation in the supervisory program.

THE PRINCIPALS' EVALUATION OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND SERVICES

It is generally accepted that the supervisory activities and services employed in any secondary school will be determined for the most part by the principal of the school. Therefore, it would seem to follow that the principal will engage in those activities and offer those services that in his judgment will be most helpful in stimulating teacher and pupil growth.

It seemed desirable in this study to ascertain the attitudes of the secondary-school principals of Pennsylvania relative to the value of the several more common supervisory activities and services, with which they had had experience, and to determine the frequency with which these activities and services are now employed by the principals.

The data showing the principals' judgment of the supervisory activities and services were first partitioned according to the size of school in terms of pupil enrollment. It was found after doing this that there were no sharp differences in judgment as to value or frequency of employment. The replies of the principals, regardless of the size of the schools, were then thrown together and tabulated. It is to be remembered in interpreting *Table 11* that only those principals who had experience with a particular supervisory activity rated its value and indicated the frequency with which it was being employed at present.

Table 11 is to be read as follows: 79.8 per cent of the 311 principals believed that classroom visitation "without notifying the teacher but followed by a conference" was of moderate value or very valuable while only 3.8 per cent considered it to be of little or no value. Forty-five and seven tenths per cent of the 311 principals employed the activity regularly; 36 per cent used it occasionally; and 1.9 per cent did not employ this particular practice. Thus it would appear that 83.6 per cent of the 311 principals had experimented with this activity inasmuch as only those principals who had experience with the supervisory activity indicated its value and frequency.

If *Table 11* is accepted as reflecting a reliable picture of current supervisory practices, one must conclude that 50 per cent or more of the principals believed all the suggested activities to be of potential supervisory value with the exception of the following:

1. Arranging for a general teachers' meeting devoted to a discussion of recent professional books

TABLE 11. NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS RATING THE VALUE AND INDICATING THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE SEVERAL SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES ARE EMPLOYED AT PRESENT

(IN PER CENT)

Activities	Value		Frequency of Employ.		
	Moderate or Very Valuable	Little or No Value	Regularly	Occasionally	Never
Classroom Visitation:					
1. Without notifying the teacher but followed by a conference	79.8	3.8	45.7	36.0	1.9
2. Preceded and followed by a conference	61.5	10.9	5.5	50.8	16.1
3. Notifying the teacher in advance and followed by a conference	50.1	29.6	8.0	50.8	20.9
Arranging for General Teachers' Meetings Devoted to a Discussion of:					
1. General educational policies to be followed	77.5	1.6	33.8	44.0	1.3
2. Persistent general instructional problems	74.9	4.8	28.6	48.9	2.2
3. The changing functions of the secondary school	74.0	2.9	15.4	57.3	4.2
4. Social movements affecting education	66.2	6.4	5.8	59.4	7.4
5. The fundamental objectives of education	64.0	7.1	18.0	47.0	6.1
6. The implications of democratic-social theory for educational method	59.5	9.6	9.0	50.1	10.0
7. Changing conception of the nature of learning	58.5	12.2	8.4	49.5	12.8
8. Recent professional books	41.8	8.1	7.7	36.7	5.5
Arranging for Departmental Meetings or Meetings of All Teachers in a Particular Field Devoted to a Discussion of:					
1. Specific instructional problems within the department	63.0	1.6	24.4	37.0	3.2
2. Integration of the subject matter of the courses within the department with courses in other departments	62.7	1.6	14.8	46.0	3.5
3. Measuring and evaluating the outcomes of instruction of the department	62.0	1.0	20.9	39.2	2.9
4. Contribution of subject matter of the department to the achievement of the educational objectives	59.8	2.6	12.5	44.4	5.5
5. Materials of instruction such as textbooks and equipment	59.1	6.8	17.7	42.4	5.8
Providing Demonstration Teaching With:					
1. Only those teachers in attendance who are teaching in the subject field of the demonstration	47.0	7.4	4.6	24.4	25.4
2. All teachers in attendance regardless of the subject field of demonstration	35.4	23.1	1.6	17.0	39.9
Issuing a Supervisory Bulletin Containing:					
1. General information of a supervisory nature	65.9	5.2	28.3	36.7	6.1
2. References to articles in professional journals and articles in other journals with implications for education	60.4	9.6	13.5	44.0	12.5
3. Annotations and digests of the articles in professional journals	55.9	12.3	6.8	43.4	18.0

Activities	Value		Frequency of Employ.		
	Moderate or Very Valuable	Little or No Value	Regularly	Occasionally	Never
Providing for Teachers Visiting Other Teachers:					
1. In other schools	66.2	3.2	10.0	42.8	16.6
2. In the same school	53.1	14.4	7.2	35.7	24.6
Inaugurating a Curriculum-Revision Program in Which:					
1. A selected group of teachers participate	55.6	4.2	13.5	36.0	10.3
2. All teachers participate	53.1	8.7	15.1	28.6	18.1
3. The principal is mainly responsible for development of new courses of study	24.8	28.0	9.3	19.3	24.2
Assisting Teachers in Planning Instruction for:					
1. Large units of work	67.6	3.8	21.2	43.4	6.8
2. The semester or year	66.6	2.3	26.7	35.8	6.4
3. The class period	59.5	10.3	12.5	49.5	7.8
Providing for Professional Reading and Study by:					
1. Establishing a professional library from which teachers may withdraw books voluntarily	69.1	4.2	40.8	23.8	8.7
2. Organizing study groups	45.7	7.7	6.8	25.7	20.9
3. Requiring teachers to read certain books which may be obtained without cost to them from the professional library or supplied by the school	38.6	24.8	4.8	21.9	36.7
4. Requiring teachers to purchase certain professional books to be read	23.1	39.2	1.9	8.0	52.4
Encouraging Teachers to Further Their Education by:					
1. Attending Summer Session	78.8	.6	45.3	33.1	1.0
2. Attending late afternoon, evening, and Saturday courses	70.1	4.2	27.0	41.8	5.5
3. Taking a leave of absence for a semester or year of graduate work	65.0	1.0	3.5	31.6	30.9
4. Travel	59.1	1.1	8.4	37.0	14.8
5. Enrolling in correspondence courses	25.1	36.3	4.2	13.8	43.4
Ascertaining the Attitude of Pupils Toward Instruction by:					
1. Interviewing pupil leaders	58.8	13.2	7.1	40.5	24.4
2. Having pupils respond to well-controlled questionnaire	42.4	20.6	7.1	23.1	32.8

2. Providing demonstration teaching
3. Inaugurating a curriculum-revision program wherein the principal is mainly responsible for the development of new courses of study
4. Providing for professional reading and study by (a) requiring teachers to purchase certain professional books, (b) requiring teachers to read certain books provided by the professional library or school, and (c) organizing study groups
5. Encouraging teachers to further their education by enrolling in correspondence courses, and
6. Ascertaining the attitudes of pupils toward instruction by appointing a committee of pupils to receive criticism and suggestions.

When one examines the frequency with which the several supervisory activities are actually participated in by the principals, he cannot help but be impressed by the small number of activities engaged in by any large number of principals. Classroom visitation "without notifying the teacher but followed by a conference" is employed regularly by the largest number of principals (45.7 per cent). Forty-five and three tenths per cent of the principals encouraged teachers to "attend summer session." The third and fourth activities in point of the number of principals employing them regularly are "establishing a professional library from which teachers may withdraw books voluntarily," engaged in by 40.8 per cent of the principals, and arranging for general teachers' meeting devoted to a discussion of "general educational policies to be followed," employed by 33.8 per cent of the principals. Each of the other suggested supervisory activities was employed regularly by less than 30 per cent of the 311 principals.

A comparison of the judgment of the principals as to the value they attach to many of the activities with the frequency with which they actually employ the activities in their present supervisory programs gives rise to a number of questions in the minds of serious students of supervisory theory and practice. Is there a lack of initiative on the part of the principals? Are the principals not adequately prepared to engage in those activities requiring broad professional orientation? Are the principals buried under a multitude of minor details that prevent them from exercising instructional leadership? Or are the principals not delegating to other staff members minor administrative and supervisory responsibilities and duties, thereby freeing themselves for real educational leadership?

Probably the prevailing situation cannot be attributed entirely to any one of the foregoing conditions. In view of the data presented in this study it would appear, however, that the lack of adequate personnel to whom the principal can delegate responsibility is one of the major obstacles in the way of effective supervision.

PRESENT SUPERVISORY PROBLEMS

The principals were also requested to report the most urgent supervisory problems facing them at the present time. Only 171 of the 311 principals responding to the questionnaire reported supervisory problems. Since the request for supervisory problems was the last item on the rather lengthy questionnaire, probably many principals did not respond because of the time factor. There were, however, a few fortunate souls who reported that they had no supervisory problems! The problems reported by 171 principals are summarized in *Table 12*.

The classification of free responses is always a difficult task. No effort was made, however, to force the problems reported by the principals into previously determined categories. Therefore, *Table 12* does not represent a list of mutually exclusive supervisory problems. Apparently the first three—stimulating professional growth in teachers, finding time for supervision, and providing an appropriate curriculum—are of most serious concern to

TABLE 12. MOST URGENT SUPERVISORY PROBLEMS
REPORTED BY 171 PRINCIPALS

<i>Problem</i>	<i>Frequency of Mention</i>
Stimulating professional growth in teachers	58
Finding time for supervision	52
Providing an appropriate curriculum	44
Determining policies relative to extracurriculum activities	16
Providing guidance services	13
Improving the system of measuring, grading, and reporting	12
Inducting inexperienced teachers	10
Helping weak teachers	10
Too heavy teacher-load	10
Developing study habits in pupils	8
Establishing a wholesome and stimulating learning situation	8
Physical plant overcrowded	7
Co-ordinating work and activities of different departments	7
Arranging for stimulating teachers' meetings	6
Developing a favorable school attitude	6
Scheduling program of classes	5
Principal inadequately prepared for supervision	4
Establishing proper teacher-pupil relationship	4
Obtaining instructional material	3
Arranging for inter-visitation	2
Developing a desirable attitude toward supervision	2
Eliminating dualism in supervisory organization	1
Establishing an adequate salary schedule	1

the principals. These problems are also recognized in current professional literature as of paramount importance. Many of the supervisory problems reported are also administrative problems.

CONCLUSIONS

If the data reported in this survey reflect the actual status of supervisory affairs in the secondary schools of Pennsylvania, it would appear that the following conclusions seem justified.

1. It is very evident that many secondary schools are inadequately staffed. In many schools of 800 or fewer in pupil enrollment the principals have little or no administrative and supervisory assistance, very little secretarial assistance, and heavy teaching responsibilities. In the larger schools—801 or more in pupil enrollment—the principals are relieved from teaching responsibilities and have more secretarial help but they do not have sufficient personnel to provide adequate pupil services.
2. The principal is directly responsible for the supervisory program in the majority of the secondary schools. He has very little assistance from other members of his staff except in those schools in which the departmental organization is employed. This form of organization is only employed, to any considerable extent, in schools with a pupil population of 801 or more. But even in the school's organized on a departmental basis the status of the department head is not clearly defined. Those forms of organization that reflect a more co-operative approach to supervision are few in number.

3. It would appear that the principals need to clarify their thinking about the specific function of classroom visitation in the supervisory program, especially since more than 90 per cent of them engage in this activity. If one is to judge from their responses to the value of the several purposes in visiting the classroom it would seem that the principals do not discriminate very clearly between the purposes of greater and lesser importance.
4. Regardless of the high value assigned to many of the supervisory activities there were only a few that were employed regularly by a large number of principals. In fact, there were only two activities—classroom visitation and encouraging teachers to further their education by attending summer school—that were participated in regularly by any considerable number of principals. In the main, the principals' responses to the several supervisory activities would seem to reflect an opportunistic attitude toward supervision.
5. Analysis of the data from individual schools revealed that many supervisory practices based on conflicting theories of education existed side by side in the same school. Also, many of the supervisory practices reported cannot be justified in light of modern educational theory.
6. Of the three most urgent supervisory problems—"stimulating professional growth in teachers," "finding time for supervision," and "providing an appropriate curriculum"—the first two have long been recognized as challenges to the principal. The secondary-school curriculum problem has assumed serious proportion within the last fifteen to twenty years. It probably will continue to be of major importance and, therefore, provides a suitable point of departure for the supervisory program.



Even pupils in this school give assistance which ultimately leads to successful operation of the school.

Supervised Correspondence Study

Meeting Basic and Emergency Demands

REX HAIGHT

Director, State Correspondence School, Missoula, Montana

IN SOME RESPECTS our school system is like the automobile. The auto was built for a certain type of roadbed, temperature extreme, altitude, load, and operator. If any or all of these factors change, the car may cease to function as it should. Ice, snow, sand, mud, and high temperature may place unexpected strain upon the vehicle—in fact, may make it all but useless while these conditions continue. The solution is not the complete destruction of the car, but the development of some new accessory, adjustment, or principle which will overcome the difficulty. A new steering device, chains, a different kind of tread on the tire, or more inflation of the tires may correct the difficulty. Bear in mind that a new method frequently means the giving up of some old way or procedure. For example the closed car did away with side curtains.

To continue with the comparison, taking the nation as a whole, the secondary-school program has in many regions "high centered" in dealing with the problems of physically disabled pupils of rural areas, isolated boys and girls who are unable to attend a regular secondary school because of distance and finance, and regular secondary-school pupils who need educational advantages not offered by the school. Today, problems of education have been aggravated by rubber rationing, mal-distribution of labor, and teacher shortage in certain fields.

New procedures in school administration must be used in order to cope with the problems which have just been outlined. Perhaps it will be hardest of all to jettison the old ideas of self-sufficiency of our present programs and of each school's ability to cope with the difficulties single-handed. In this connection educational leaders can learn a lesson from merchandising. The druggist in the average-size town does not attempt to carry all the expensive or even commonly used serums which the patrons of his community may demand. He does, however, keep in constant touch with centers which can supply emergency serums on short notice. The cost of any other policy would be prohibitive and might even force the store into bankruptcy, thereby depriving the community of its general services. What has been said about the drug store applies equally well to unusual repair demands for watches, appliances, and machinery.

Applied to our school system, the principle of using central agencies to meet special needs means that the local secondary school provides a program of study and activity which meets as many ordinary demands as possible and co-operates with other schools and agencies in meeting unusual pupil needs. In other words, if only two pupils in the secondary school

desire and need work in blueprint reading or radio, the school might enroll the pupils in extension courses taken under school supervision and recognized as a part of the regular school program. Since there are many ways of measuring achievement, educational standards can be protected. The financial advantages of the plan are apparent.

Specifically, the plan which has been outlined makes it possible for regular secondary-school pupils to obtain instruction in special subjects not offered by the school—subjects incidentally, which may be of great significance to the individual in peace-time and especially significant to the individual and the country in time of national emergency. The plan also makes it possible for boys and girls who are unable to attend a regular secondary school to continue their education at this crucial time. The enrollment of the Montana State Correspondence School indicates that schools are making use of the plan to meet changed conditions. The use of this plan does not destroy the local autonomy of the school; however, its use does imply a high type of co-operative effort.

The Montana State Correspondence School was established three years ago for the express purpose of equalizing educational opportunity. Although this school was established to meet peace-time educational demands, the flexibility of the individualized program which it offers makes it a valuable adjunct to our educational system during this crisis.

TYPES OF PUPILS SERVED

In general, the demands brought on by the present national emergency come from five groups of pupils. In the first place, there is the demand for courses which comes from enlisted men. As more men enter the service, requests from this source are likely to increase. Second, a demand comes from pupils who are beginning apprenticeships. In most instances, labor unions desire secondary-school graduates; however, during the crisis they are accepting a limited number of boys with the understanding that they continue their secondary-school work. As a rule, the local secondary school can meet demands of unions by using extension courses which the school supervises. The third group is made up of boys and girls who are forced to stay out of school because of acute labor shortages. Frequently, an older brother has been called to the service and another member of the family must carry on. The fourth group is made up of youths who want to obtain knowledge in a special field or to acquire a particular skill because of desired employment. Since the pupil works at his own speed by correspondence, it is possible for him to make comparatively rapid progress by concentrating upon a single subject or a limited number of subjects. And last, many pupils wish to take subjects because they want special training or want to enter some special school.

It is not an exaggeration to say that any procedure which helps solve perplexing educational problems not only helps the particular group affected, but the entire school system as well. Solution of these problems usually releases new energy which can be used to cope with still other problems.

The use of central-agency-instructional services is one of the most promising practices for coping with today's unusual demands upon the educational system. In Montana, approximately one out of every fifteen secondary-school pupils uses the service sometime during his secondary-school career. Chief reasons for the growth of this work in Montana include: (1) it has great flexibility and is adaptable to new, critical situations, (2) a centralized instruction service is more economical than the setting-up of several independent, very small classes, and (3) a secondary education is made available to those living in isolated areas who, for reasons of distance and finance, cannot attend a regular secondary school.

FINANCING THE COURSES

The Montana State Correspondence School was established in 1939 by legislative act as a division of the State Department of Public Instruction. The school finances are derived from state and local sources. The last state legislature appropriated \$39,000.00 for the biennium from the approximately \$1,000,000.00 state-school funds distributed annually. The theory back of the appropriation is that greater benefits are derived from the service thus provided than from an equal expenditure of money payments. The district's contribution comes from the payment of fees. The fee for pupils attending a regular secondary school and taking enrichment courses is three dollars a semester course; for physically disabled pupils unable to attend the secondary school, one dollar; and for isolated pupils who cannot attend a secondary school because of distance and finance, one dollar. The latter are usually ninth- and tenth-grade pupils who carry on their work under the supervision of a rural teacher. This special fee is paid by pupils residing five or more miles from a secondary school and three or more miles from a bus line.

GENERAL PROCEDURES

Pupils throughout the state apply for extension work through the principals of the local secondary schools or county superintendents. The extension center offers courses in the following fields: agriculture, fine arts, practical arts, commercial work, English, home economics, languages, mathematics, and social sciences. The guidance which the local school gives the pupil in selecting work adapted to his particular interests and needs is of utmost importance. At the time the pupil enrolls, the secondary-school principal designates a supervisor, or co-ordinator, who directs the pupil's study and administers the testing program.

Upon receipt of the approved application, the State Correspondence School sends the principal or supervisor a manual of assignments for the pupil. It contains helpful suggestions on how to proceed with each lesson, special exercises, projects, and other study helps. Also sent is a program of testing, which consists of diagnostic and achievement tests to be administered by the supervisor.

Every effort is made to keep the work from being solely of a bookish nature. From the first, the pupil is encouraged to do practical work

related to the courses he is taking, to make field trips, to start collections, to carry on experiments, and to participate in other related activities of a learning nature.

There are many sources of information through which the instructor at the correspondence center comes to know the pupil—photographs, personal letters, information contained on the application blank relating to interests and hobbies and out-of-school responsibilities of the pupil, as well as confidential letters and reports from the supervisor and the secondary-school principal. Incidentally, one of the most helpful reports the school receives is the confidential personality blank, prepared by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. The knowledge gained from these sources is of great aid to the instructor in planning an individualized educational program.

In addition to the written assignments, dresses, made-over garments, projects made of wood, examples of soldering or welding, photographs of soil erosion and of burnt-over timberland, and samples of food products are sent to the school for inspection, comment, and appraisal.

Ninety per cent of the lesson material and projects are returned to the local school within twenty-four hours after it is received, seventy-five per cent being returned within eight hours after arrival. The instructors are always conscious of three factors of prime importance in the handling of student material: (1) treating the pupil as an individual rather than as part of a group, (2) thorough analysis of the work which the pupil has presented, with timely suggestions and comments, and (3) prompt return of the material.

The Montana State Correspondence School's library, now being built up particularly for pupil use, has grown rapidly from a few textbooks into a well-rounded "circulating" library. The library service is designed to supplement and reinforce the instructional program as well as to encourage good reading habits. The teachers find the library of great value—they use it extensively for enrichment material in their planning and teaching; and, by suggesting books, pamphlets, and bulletins, encourage pupil use.

The variety of material available is suggested by some of the general (or subject) classifications under which the books are listed: Fiction, Drama, Poetry, Short Stories, Public Speaking, Biography, Travel and Adventure, History and Political Science, Science, Vocational Guidance, Home Economics, Art, Music, Business and Communication, Mechanical Trades, Farm Management, and Sports and Games. Special care has been taken to select books of a challenging and inviting nature. Almost all of these books are late editions.

A list of books available is sent out to pupils enrolled for correspondence work. A pupil desiring to borrow books from this "lending" library fills out a special library card signed by one of his parents or his supervisor. In applying for a book, a pupil signifies a first, second, and third choice in filling out the standard-request form. If the first choice is not available, the book listed as second (or third) choice is sent. Not over two books are

charged to a pupil at one time, books are loaned for a period of three weeks (this includes time in transit), and two cents a day is charged for all overdue books.

Organizations such as the Women's Club are helping to build up the magazine section, a valuable part of the library. The magazines not wanted for permanent filing are checked for articles to be added to the "packet" (clipping) library and made available to pupils. The "packet" library—a collection of articles selected from magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and bulletins—gives recent facts dealing with every phase of present-day subjects. This material is organized for pupil use, too.

This library program, by extending educational opportunity, harmonizes with the basic philosophy of the State Correspondence School.

Taken as a whole, pupils have sufficient personal motivation in enrolling for correspondence work to carry them through the courses successfully. The pupil with a compelling interest is likely to do exceptional work. Other sources of motivation are: requirements for graduation, entrance requirements of colleges, universities and special schools, admission into a trade or profession, eligibility for promotion or advancement in the service. Generally, pupils possess considerable initiative and self-reliance. The foregoing factors along with regular study habits encouraged by local-school supervision of study explains in part why the procedure has "stood up."

Since most pupils prefer to attend a secondary school and do work in a regular class, there is little danger of over-using supervised correspondence study. Experience indicates that there is a definite saturation point beyond which enrollments are not likely to go in any school or community. For instance, there is a comparatively even distribution of registrations in the various counties of Montana. Enrollments occur with greater frequency in rural areas and small towns.

That the procedure is administratively sound is evidenced by the fact that principals who have used this method most extensively and over the longest periods of time give it a very high rating. Thus, it is a "repeat business." This statement is borne out by the fact that the state central-instruction agencies which have been established in the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand have all, without exception, had a steady growth. Since 1914, fifteen or more such state instruction agencies have been established by legislative enactment in the countries named.

A few precautions should be observed in introducing this service. In the first place, a gradual introduction of the work on an experimental basis is, ordinarily, recommended. Second, pupil counselors should consider pupil interests, needs, and capacities in course selection. Third, the work should be regarded as a part of the regular school program, and the pupil should follow conscientiously a definite study schedule. Fourth, the correspondence program should be built upon present educational foundations, thus avoiding the setting-up of a dual system of education. This means the continuance of local autonomy in matters of school administration.

THE NEED FOR THESE COURSES

In studying the growth of this movement in a state or province, it will usually be found that the extent of the use of the central-instruction service varies directly with the sparsity of population. Distance to school, need of enrichment courses, and potential economies are no doubt the explanation. However, in some instances, schools and areas which should profit most from the school use it least. Unwillingness to use this new procedure may be based upon: (1) complacency and a feeling that the present program is self-sufficient, (2) lack of information about the nature and possibility of this new educational device, (3) fear of establishing precedents which will make obsolete certain present practices, and (4) failure to see the need of a co-operative attack upon problems which cannot be solved by individual action.

The need for an efficient and effective educational system was never greater than it is today. Factories, labor organizations, farms, hospitals, communication and transportation systems, construction concerns, government agencies, in addition to all the branches of the service are demanding an army of men and women with special qualifications who can hold responsible positions. All of our present activity means that we need more typists, secretaries, draftsmen, mathematicians, bookkeepers, statisticians, entertainers, musicians, nurses, doctors, technicians, chemists, engineers, and other workers in order to increase productivity, guard national health and well-being, and maintain a high national morale. In order to avoid unnecessary dislocations in education, it is imperative that we discover and use all the methods which will aid our country in war—and in the peace which follows.



Such an activity as this represents only one of the many activities that can be successfully guided through correspondence study.

They Learn by Mail

HOWARD G. SPAULDING
Principal, North Plainfield, New Jersey, High School

FOR THE PAST seven years North Plainfield High School, a suburban secondary school with an enrollment of one thousand and twenty-five pupils, has offered supervised correspondence courses as a part of its curriculum. A recent follow-up study of those who have completed work in this field has made it possible to draw some interesting conclusions concerning the value of the work. According to the North Plainfield plan, pupils are permitted to elect one correspondence course as part of their program during their junior and senior years, or during their sophomore year if there is a special reason for an earlier registration. The pupils are scheduled for one period each day with a teacher in charge of this work who has ability to assist the pupil when he encounters difficulty. They proceed at their own rate with the study of unit instruction booklets until they have completed the minimum requirements for credit. This minimum varies from eight to fifteen units according to the difficulty of the units. At the completion of each unit a test is administered and, in the event of failure the pupil reviews the work and is given a re-test, this process continuing until mastery of the unit is attained.

Some of the test papers are corrected by the instructor while others are sent for correction to the correspondence agency from which the courses are purchased. The cost per pupil for instructional materials and test correction during the past four years has averaged approximately ten dollars per course. This expense is met by the board of education. Since the pupils are instructed in classes of normal size, the cost for teacher time is substantially the same as for other subjects of instruction.

PUPILS FOLLOWED UP

From 1935 to 1940 inclusive pupils left the school after the completion of one or more correspondence courses. Recently a questionnaire was sent to all of these former pupils requesting information concerning their vocational experience since leaving school and their opinions concerning the values of their correspondence study. Fifty-two replies were received, distributed as follows:

Radio	11	Auto Mechanics	3
Aviation	8	Carpentry	2
Fruit Culture	5	Cafeteria Management	2
Poultry Husbandry	3	Civil Service	2
Accounting	3	Patternmaking	1
Service Station Management	3	Auto Engineering	1
Navigation	3	Diesel Engineering	1
Advertising	3	Practical Electricity	1

The first conclusion that one comes to in evaluating the work is that supervised correspondence study has value for many pupils in developing skill in self-directed study. During the years this work has been in progress,

the correspondence pupils have been notable for their close attention to their work. This close attention to business is voluntary rather than forced; and although there is no requirement of home study, pupils frequently have become so interested that they have continued their study after school hours. Comments such as the following indicate that those who have taken the work recognize its value in developing good work habits.

From a boy who studied radio and aviation and is now a pilot on a transcontinental airline:

Correspondence Study taught me initiative to study alone, and I have studied successfully and thoroughly many subjects which I have needed in connection with my work.

From a boy who studied aviation and is now an aerial photographer in the army:

The method of study is a training in itself and the knowledge gained can be a benefit for those who wish to continue their studies.

From a boy who studied navigation and is now about to complete his training as an ensign in the coast guard:

This type of study holds the student's interest and makes him try harder.

GUIDANCE VALUES

Supervised correspondence study, when properly directed, has definite guidance values, both positive and negative, for many pupils. One requisite for successful work in this field is careful and discriminating guidance in the selection of courses. In this school each applicant is interviewed by the director of correspondence study before he is enrolled in a course and is required to prove that he has a real interest in the subject of his choice, that he is capable of succeeding with the study, and that there is a reasonable expectation that he will apply his learning in a vocational way. Preference is given to pupils who have an opportunity to apply what they are learning. Some of the most successful work has been done with pupils who have applied their newly acquired knowledge of poultry raising to the management of their own flock, who have worked in a garage outside of school hours while studying auto mechanics, or have secured employment in a radio shop while studying the principles of radio. The importance of such opportunities for supplementary experience can scarcely be overemphasized.

The test of the positive guidance value of the work is found in the extent to which pupils who completed correspondence courses later entered vocations related to the courses they studied. A study of the questionnaire returns shows that twenty-four of the fifty-two pupils are engaged in work where they have opportunity to apply what they learned in correspondence study in an important way; three are engaged in work where their courses have had some vocational application or have used their knowledge in an avocational way, and twenty-five are in fields of work where there is no apparent opportunity of applying what they learned from correspondence study.

Examination of the individual records of these former pupils reveals that many have made very satisfactory progress in the fields for which

their correspondence study started their preparation. One pupil who completed two years of work in aviation is now an instructor in a large aviation school. Another who studied radio is now managing his own radio shop. One boy whose work in other subjects was of poor quality but who was successful in the study of poultry and fruit farming is now helping to manage his father's farm and is planning to continue his agricultural studies in extension courses. A former pupil of traffic management is now working in that field for a large industrial concern and reports that the correspondence work has been of definite value to him. From these and similar cases it seems fair to conclude that for perhaps half of those who have studied correspondence courses the work has confirmed their interests in the field of their choice and has given them some advantage upon entering employment.

There is also a negative guidance value in the work in that some pupils are led to alter their vocational plans because of their experience with correspondence study. No record has been kept of the applications for guidance courses that have been rejected but approximately a third of all applications that have been made for this work have been rejected or deferred until the pupil completed necessary prerequisites, usually in the field of mathematics or science. Each year a few pupils have dropped the work when they have found the courses uninteresting or beyond their ability and have modified their vocational plans as a result of their experience with correspondence study.

EVALUATION

The actual value of the courses in providing vocational preparation is difficult to estimate. There probably is a tendency to overestimate this value. Certainly it would be unwise to expect that a ten-unit course in any vocational field would fully prepare any worker for any job. Unless accompanied by shop work or supervised employment, the courses tend to be excessively bookish and theoretical and in some cases the materials of instruction become out-dated. The reports of former pupils regarding the value of the work in providing vocational preparation are conflicting. It would be unfortunate if any school should consider correspondence study as the whole answer to the problem of vocational preparation and because of its correspondence study program should lessen its efforts to provide vocational preparation by other means. Supervised-correspondence study can supplement the other efforts of the school to provide vocational preparation. It cannot be considered as a satisfactory substitute for these efforts. However, it does offer some real possibilities for the small school to broaden its program and to meet the individual and varied needs and interests of the few.

As in every aspect of school work, the success of supervised-correspondence study depends directly upon the ability of the person who conducts it. In the North Plainfield school whatever success this work has had, and it has been considerable, is due to the enthusiasm, industry,

and good judgment of the director of correspondence study. The person who would direct this work must believe thoroughly in its value, must be capable of providing sound guidance in the selection of courses, must have more than ordinary skill in motivating and directing study, and must have the initiative required to create opportunities for out-of-school experiences supplementing the classroom work. With such a person in charge, correspondence study can provide real opportunities for many pupils.

Policy Concerning Young Agriculture Workers

As the Nation's all-out war effort progresses, it may be necessary in some areas to recruit young people not ordinarily in the agricultural labor force for assistance in harvesting the crops. Specifically the recruitment of young workers for agriculture should be planned and conducted in accordance with procedures providing that—

All plans for the use of young workers are developed as part of broad programs for meeting the needs of agricultural labor based on consideration of all available sources of labor and the wages and working conditions offered to adults;

State departments or agencies dealing with education, labor, health, and agriculture participate in the development of policies regarding recruitment of young workers and possible modification of school programs, and in the application of these policies to local situations;

Proposals for employment of young workers during normal school terms are approved only after the Farm Placement Service of the United States Employment Service for the several states determines, on the basis of full information on the labor situation, that the anticipated need for labor cannot be filled by older persons resident in the locality or reasonably available from outside the locality.

In recruiting young people from school when a real need for agricultural workers has been found to exist—

Youth 16 years of age and older should be engaged before children aged 14 and 15 are called upon; the schools should make every effort to develop programs that will wisely dovetail school activities with agricultural work and will result in no curtailment of school terms;

Children 14 and 15 years of age should not be released from school nor their school programs modified unless it is found that the need for farm labor is an essential one and cannot be met in any other practicable way; in such case adjustment in school attendance and programs should be arranged to interfere as little as possible with normal school opportunities and progress.

School work and home duties should constitute the only work activities of children under 14 years of age; and such children should not be employed in agriculture outside the home farm.

This statement of national policy is made on the belief that the principles presented are essential for safeguarding children, are fully compatible with the needs of war-time production, and will facilitate the constructive participation of youth in the Nation's great productive effort.—*Prepared in Conference With Representatives of the U. S. Office of Education, the U. S. Department of Agriculture, and the U. S. Employment Service, and Approved by These Agencies.*

Can the School Retain Them?

GEORGE L. LETTS

Principal, York Community High School, Elmhurst, Illinois

It should be the duty and responsibility of every secondary school to provide opportunities for the fullest possible development of its pupils. Since individual development depends to a great extent upon recognition of and provision for individual differences, considerable attention should be given in the school to such recognition and provision. The York Community High School has been intensively interested in providing broad opportunities based on the individual needs of its pupils. The most extensive effort along this line is class segregation on the following bases: freshmen according to grade-school I. Q. tests and teachers' ratings, plus a standardized language test; sophomores, juniors, and seniors according to the secondary-school I. Q. ratings, plus the marks made in their classes. Over a period of twelve years this plan has proved quite successful. Briefly, the amount of work covered and the rate of progress is determined by the level of ability of the class.

Recently a school-wide testing program was instituted. At the beginning of each year and also at the end of the senior year, all pupils are given a battery of tests covering the four major fields of learning: English, mathematics, natural science, and social studies. These are the standardized tests of the Co-operative Test Service of the American Council on Education. By means of them each individual pupil may determine: (1) the amount and rate of his own progress in each field from year to year, (2) his level of achievement and rate of progress compared with the averages of his classmates, and (3) the same items compared with averages of pupils throughout the country. Each pupil's cumulative record is kept on a profile chart which presents a picture of his four years' growth against the background of all the comparable data mentioned above.

Within the curriculum further provision for individual differences is made. Certain courses that were formerly required, such as algebra, are now optional. Courses more suited to individual differences have been added: commercial business, shop work, art, home economics, and music—all have been expanded. In the English department, two-level courses have already been established in English IX and XII, and are being developed for the other two years.

Several courses designed to meet the needs of individual differences deserve special note. Experimental work in remedial reading is underway in one level of English IX. Instead of purchasing a class text, pupils contribute a certain sum towards the purchase of sets of books especially planned for remedial-reading needs. Pupils are

started at their pre-tested natural reading levels and move upward as their individual difficulties are discovered and corrected.

A full year's course in occupational opportunities is open to pupils who do not intend to go to college. Through reading, personal interviews, and visits to various industrial and commercial concerns in the Chicago area, pupils investigate and report on numerous occupational opportunities. Also for those with no college aspirations is the course in general business, in which pupils study business services used by the average citizen. Banking, insurance, communication, travel, hotel services, and transportation are some of the subjects investigated and discussed.

The sight-saving department provides special opportunities for those whose eyesight is dangerously impaired. Volunteer pupil readers read to these people and help them to complete assignments. The room is specially lighted, decorated, and equipped. The instructor has had special training in directing this type of work.

In addition to such opportunities within the curriculum, individual differences receive further attention. Teachers are required to remain in their rooms forty minutes after dismissal. During this time pupils receive individual attention and instruction toward adjustment of personal difficulties. Frequently superior pupils are asked to confer with the teacher at this time concerning possibilities of extra-credit work.

Parents' Night is an interesting project at York. At least twice a year, from 7:30 to 9:30 in the evening, the school holds open house for all parents. Parents, provided with the room assignments of their children's teachers, go about the building, interviewing Johnny's instructors. Then indeed much is brought to light about individual differences and how they must be handled.

GUIDANCE THROUGH THE SUBJECTS

Further work in guidance is to be found in many of the classrooms. The English department includes some work in guidance in each course. This work is planned to arouse in the pupil an awareness of himself as a possible asset. He is influenced to take inventory of himself, to consider his possibilities, to expand his interests, to determine what his education can and should do for him. In senior English two full weeks are devoted to an occupational investigation and a written report.

The commercial department conducts its own guidance and placement activities. An attempt is made to determine what type of work each pupil can do successfully. Pupils are placed in certain courses on this basis. A large percentage of the commercial pupils are placed in jobs in the Chicago area through the efforts of the commercial department. Contacts are secured through personnel directors of industries and business concerns, and through the efforts of local influential citizens.

A full-time registered nurse is employed by the pupil welfare program. Her duties include: investigation and improvement of general health habits, urging medical attention and correction of defects likely to cause illness, supplementary teaching following examination by a physician, advice and aid in practical application of doctor's orders, examination and advice concerning abnormal skin conditions, school-wide hearing tests, mental adjustments, and keeping in touch with homes of pupils who are absent for three days or more. The program also provides financial aid to needy pupils. Books, clothing, and supplies are available through the welfare fund. NYA work is also available to deserving pupils.

Opportunities are also offered by the music, physical education, and debate departments. Three bands—beginners, cadet, and concert—are now established. Two orchestras, beginners and advanced, complete the opportunities for instrumental music education. They present at least four concerts a year and participate in state and national school band festivals. Vocal music is represented by six different groups: The freshman training group, First Treble Clef, Second Treble Clef, Boys' Glee Club, Girls' Glee Club, and the Choir. They present at least three concerts a year and also combine with the instrumental department to produce an operetta. The music department provides both instrumental and vocal music for many school and community functions. Approximately three hundred students are enrolled in the department.

The girls' physical education department provides participation in the following sports: basketball, softball, field hockey, tennis, mass badminton, archery, golf, volley ball, field ball, soccer, and gymnastics. Rhythm, tap, and toe dancing are also taught. Posture and vision tests are given each year, and personal hygiene is stressed. Approximately eight hundred girls are enrolled in the department. The boys' physical education classes participate in gymnastics, boxing, wrestling, tennis, track, speedball, touch football, basketball, and general health training.

GUIDANCE THROUGH THE EXTRACURRICULUM

Extracurriculum activity opportunities are numerous and varied. This is true in spite of the fact that they are not kept alive by teacher-applied artificial respiration. If an organization or club cannot generate its own pupil interest and life power, it is allowed to die a natural death. Clubs are entirely democratic with the exception of certain scholastic and achievement requirements. Including athletic teams, 1,450 students participate in extracurriculum activities.

An unusually close check is made of all money handled by all clubs and organizations. All money received is deposited in the office of the board of education, and all bills are paid through that office. A professional auditor is employed to audit the accounts of all groups concerned with the handling of money.

Major athletic, musical, and dramatic events, as well as several parties and dances, are handled by what is known as the Activity Book Plan. At the beginning of the year, pupils contract to purchase for three dollars (50 cents down and ten cents a week thereafter) a book of tickets admitting them to every all-school event. Book owners are automatic subscribers to the school newspaper. The plan has increased to a remarkable degree the attendance at school events. Twelve hundred of the sixteen hundred pupils are members of the plan. As attendance has increased, the program of activities has expanded. The plan has also proved successful financially. As a result, the department no longer is subsidized by the board of education, but is almost entirely self-supporting.

The Latin Club, organized in 1923 and now boasting a membership of eight per cent of the total school population, is one of the strongest clubs in the school. Its purpose is three-fold: to foster an appreciation of the classics, to increase interest in the relation of Latin to practical life, and to provide social contacts for its members. The annual *Roman Banquet*, carried out in minute detail in true, old Roman fashion, is its big event of the year. The club has been able to secure unusually well qualified speakers for its programs, some of whom have spent considerable time in Greece and Rome.

The Spanish club is even stronger numerically than the Latin Club. It seeks to promote interest in and understanding of Spanish-speaking countries and to advance the study of Spanish. *Pan-American Day* is its big event, crowned by a well-planned and interesting program featuring songs, dances, and activities of Spanish Pan-American folk. The club also sponsors the annual sale of Red Cross bangle pins.

The French Club seeks to broaden pupils' knowledge of French and French life. At potluck suppers, socials, and regular monthly meetings, club members talk French and conduct the proceedings in French fashion. Speakers familiar with French life tell of their experiences.

The National Honor Society has a very strong chapter. Members are admitted on the three-fold basis of scholarship, leadership, and service to the school. Some of its activities are ushering at school functions, sponsoring a football dance, presenting a school-assembly program, and carrying out some special service to the school each year.

The Quill and Scroll is a national journalistic society whose activities are concerned chiefly with studying newspapers and newspaper life. Several trips have been made to the plants of Chicago newspapers.

The most recently established club in the high school is the Creative Writing Club. It subscribes as a group to several of the writers' magazines and keeps in contact with writers' clubs of other schools for the exchange of ideas and accomplishments. Membership is gained only through recommendations on the part of the English teacher. The member must maintain in membership an "A" or "B" average, must have

a sincere interest in creative writing, and must have not only the desire but the initiative to create.

The Thespian Society is another national honorary group. Membership is limited to those who have seen active service in dramatic productions. In addition to lending assistance and advice in all dramatic productions of the school, Thespians have their own special event, known as *Drama Nite*, when three one-act plays are presented. The Thespians produce plays and puppet shows for their own club programs, provide numbers for school programs, go to Chicago on theatre parties, and study theatrical productions as recorded in professional publications. It may be added here that a full year's course in dramatics is offered by the speech department of the school. History of the theatre and play production in all its aspects make up the course.

The York Historical Society is composed of juniors and seniors especially interested in social science. The society's activities have included many visits to Hull House, the Cook County Criminal Court, the Chicago Historical Society, and other spots of historic interest. It holds mock national nominating conventions and school-wide mock elections. It has heard talks by a world war nurse, an Oxford student, and people from India, China, and England.

The Pep Club is open to any boy or girl interested in promoting enthusiasm within the student body for athletic games and meets. This club selects, trains, and outfits the cheerleaders, organizes and conducts pep meetings, holds an annual school dance, sponsors the football banquet, and runs the candy concession at the games.

The Music Club is devoted to arousing interest in and appreciation of good music. Social contacts among pupils interested in any form or variety of music is one of the outcomes of this club's work.

The school newspaper, appearing every two weeks, provides stimulating activity for the fifty boys and girls of its staff. The newspaper seeks to reflect and interpret the affairs and activities of the school community and through its editorials to express the significant phases of school life that need attention, emphasis, correction, or appreciation. The paper serves, too, as a safety valve to blow off adolescent emotional steam by releasing it into print. By its own good taste and high standards of composition, the paper seeks to educate and elevate its readers.

The upper three classes are organized and have various activities. These activities are directed by permanent teacher-advisers; that is, from year to year the same two teachers have charge of senior affairs, two others perennially direct all junior activities, and so on. All other advisers move up as their groups of advisees progress. The sophomores present a class play and sponsor one of the three major dances of the year, the *Soph Hop*. The juniors present a class play, decorate for commencement, and produce the big social event of the year, the *Junior-Senior Prom*. The seniors are concerned with four major projects, the class play, *Sen-*

ior-Alumni Dance, class-day exercises, and commencement, and with committee work for the many other school affairs.

The Girls' Athletic Association is affiliated with the state association. Its two hundred forty-five members are devoted to increasing interest in physical activities and physical welfare, and to increasing a maximum of good sportsmanship and consideration for the other fellow. In addition to their physical activities they hold a potluck initiation party, a mother-daughter banquet, and a swim party. Each year the club pays the expenses of two girls for a week at Lake Geneva Camp. They also sponsor a social-dance class.

The school has an unusually extensive program of extracurriculum athletics for boys. Approximately four hundred twenty boys compete on varsity teams in the major and minor sports. Two distinct teams, heavyweight and lightweight, represent the school in major sports. The intramural and interclass programs involve about two hundred fifty more boys. Eleven coaches supervise the athletic program.

Schools of the West Suburban Conference participate in exchange assembly programs; that is, programs are presented in each school by the pupils from other schools. This plan promotes friendly relations among the schools and arouses interest in other schools' activities.

Thus, it may readily be seen that many doors are opened for the boys and girls of this school. They may enter where they please and take what they want. They are not pushed in.



The Daytona Beach, Florida, High School newspaper seeks to reflect and interpret the affairs and activities of the school community.

This Yearbook Problem

PAUL K. NOEL

*Yearbook Adviser and Teacher, Upper Darby High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania*

SOLOMON didn't know the half of it when he wrote, "Of making many books there is no end." The adviser or sponsor of a yearbook who continues in this work over a long period of time comes to feel that Solomon was a rank amateur, and that he should step aside and let someone speak who really knows what he is talking about.

Even persons who have a great deal to do with the publication of books are beguiled into a complacent attitude of criticism as they rapidly thumb the pages of a book, little thinking of all the time and effort that went into the making of that particular brain child. The writer realizes from his own experience that it is especially easy to take this attitude with yearbooks. One remarks with ennui as he flippantly leafs through the pages that it is a pity that there is so little originality displayed. One wonders with a note of tired apathy in his tones why so much triteness, such poor photography, such barren thinking should ever reach the dignity of permanence in print. So it is with the purpose of eliciting the sympathy of the critical and of satisfying the thirst for knowledge on the part of those who do not know and admit that they do not know that one turns to an explanation of the educational opportunities involved in the somewhat complicated procedures followed in the publication of a yearbook.

Our own homes bear eloquent witness to the fact that man has an almost morbid desire to harden his passing fancies and impressions into a kind of tangible immortality by exhibiting to all and sundry the photographs of his progenitors and friends. Thus the old family album has at one and the same time the gruesomeness of the morgue and the humor of a Hogarth painting. It was with the same idea in mind that someone originated the idea of a yearbook or annual. Cherished memories and warm friendships would march down the vista of the years in a sort of glorified secondary-school or college album. It is a far reach from these earliest efforts, which were often nothing more than an addenda to the last issue of the newspaper or magazine, to the actual or stimulated four-color jobs that roll off the presses today. There has been the consequent change, too, from a little staff of half a dozen, who could with relative ease do everything required, to the highly integrated program necessary to produce a yearbook in one of our modern schools. It was not until the author had begun to marshal a few facts for the writing of this article that he found himself somewhat awed by the amount of co-operative effort necessary to produce a yearbook.

THE SCHOOL

Upper Darby Senior High School is a suburban Philadelphia high school with an enrollment of about nineteen hundred pupils of whom six hundred are seniors. The school has three publications,—a weekly newspaper, a literary magazine, and the yearbook. The general policy of these three is controlled by a board of publications, composed of the advisers of all three. The board is presided over by a faculty member who is, at the same time, the financial adviser of all three publications. Everything that has to do with finances is under the control of this one person. We feel that this is an ideal situation. For one thing, it prevents that bugaboo of many schools,—the overlapping of demands upon advertisers. The newspaper and the magazine carry advertisements, but the yearbook does not. Naturally the literary and art advisers like this system, since it frees them from any financial worries at all.

The subscription campaign conducted in the early fall embraces all three publications. The subscription price is \$2.25 for all three, or if the pupil wishes, he may subscribe to one and not to another. He may also pay for the subscription in installments scattered strategically over the year. Agents in each of the fifty home rooms look after the details of collecting the installments, distributing the publications, and making reports to the business staff of each. Out of a school population of nineteen hundred, about thirteen hundred subscribe to all three publications.

Here, of course, begins the first evidence of the far-reaching educational opportunities to be had by participation in publication work. Counting agents and all the business staffs, there are as many as seventy-five pupils who get a great deal of experience in planning and carrying on a selling campaign, in all the details of keeping accurate records of the payments of thirteen hundred pupils, and in seeing to it that each one receives his publication as it is issued. The business staffs, further, get the splendid training of going to the business men of the community to solicit their advertising. In some cases, this also involves the writing of the copy for the advertisements.

THE YEARBOOK

It is highly desirable in order that the boys and girls may get the greatest benefit from participation that the oversight of the book should be vested in some one person who will continue in that position from year to year. There is a great deal of technical knowledge that is available to the one who is entrusted with the supervision of the yearbook. This knowledge can be translated into very real savings in the form of dollars and cents, and most certainly in the production of books that are more and more acceptable as finished products. This is so obvious a requisite to sound educational procedure that it might be thought that the writer is insulting the reader's intelligence in speaking of it. Yet, all over the country one finds schools that follow a very haphazard policy in this respect. Anyone available is appointed to take the yearbook, no matter how small his knowledge

or training. Sometimes the class adviser is made responsible for his class's book; the following year the new senior-class adviser assumes the responsibility. It is this inefficiency that has driven the printers and engravers to a servicing program that is costly to them, and which, in turn, has robbed the schools of offering to the pupils many of the educational outcomes that should be an integral part of publishing a yearbook.

As is the case in many other schools, planning for the book begins in the spring of the year preceding the year of publication. In May, the adviser sends out a call for all those juniors who would be interested in meeting to help make plans for the next year's book. Some forty or fifty usually respond to this call. Four or five meetings are held before school dismisses, the last of which is a meeting that comes after the issuance of the yearbook for the current year. With this before them, the group sits down to determine just what they like or do not like about it. The pupils are given a great deal of liberty in making suggestions and in helping to determine just what changes they would like to make for the succeeding year.

These suggestions necessarily fall within a somewhat circumscribed area. Over a period of years a school builds up a tradition about certain things that should be included in the book. The pupils' ingenuity, therefore, is more frequently exercised in finding new ways of doing an old thing rather than in launching out into new fields of content. Sometimes the adviser has to exercise a good deal of tact in bringing the pupils to accept ideas that he knows from his broader experience are much more sound than the ones that they would be inclined to accept. For instance, for many years our yearbook was devoted almost entirely to the seniors and their activities. It is quite apparent to anyone who gives the matter as much as a casual thought that one of the great values of a yearbook lies in its value as a record book, not just for the senior class but for the entire school. Since the seniors from their class treasury contribute at least half the funds needed to publish the book, they naturally and perhaps rightfully feel that they should receive the lion's share of publicity. The school has managed over a period of time by suggesting a new feature here and another there to make the yearbook include a fairly adequate coverage for all the classes and activities of the schools. Thus the yearbook in its very inception enlists the co-operative effort of a large number of pupils.

THE PRINTING AND ENGRAVING

The writer speaks now with some reluctance and a little chagrin of how the schools have allowed the printers and engravers to usurp a function that should rightfully remain within their own province. Originating somewhat harmlessly at first as a selling feature, these companies began to offer a "service" along with the regular work done by them. The engraver said, "This business of mounting pictures for the making of the engravings is a highly technical task that ought to be done by professionals and not by amateurs if your book is to look like anything. If you will give us your engraving contract, we will do this mounting free of charge." Anyone who

has attempted to cut a picture perfectly square and mount it in his own scrapbook will appreciate that this was a sore temptation to an adviser, who appreciated what a load this would lift from his shoulders, and how much better the book would really appear when it was finished. He was further tempted, because he knew in the bitter depths of his soul that almost everyone without exception who examined the book when it appeared was going to judge it, not from the educational opportunity it offered the pupils, but how well done it was. So he said to the engraver, "All right, we'll give you a trial."

The printer likewise, always hard pressed for time to meet a delivery date, and constantly handicapped by having to deal with immature pupils, who oftentimes were forced to carry on without an adviser, or else with one who had been inadequately trained, said to the adviser in charge, "Look! We realize that the planning and setting up of a book for publication is a business in itself, and after all, you were not employed as a publisher but as a teacher; why not let us do a great deal of that for you? We have an art staff that will dash off a few ideas for you, and we have some forms here that you might use in making your assignments and checking on the progress of the book. Now, this won't cost you any more. It's just a service that we offer to all our customers." Then the persuasive salesman tosses on the desk a book that his company had designed for a near-by rival school. The adviser picks it up and a hasty perusal shows him that it really is far superior to the one that his school has been publishing, and when the figures are revealed, they show that the rival school's book is costing but little more. *He is a stalwart soul who at this moment can turn his back on temptation and say, "I believe that everything you tell me is true, but if my boys and girls are no longer to have the satisfaction and experience of planning their own book, and doing the work themselves, where is the educational advantage to them?" The football coach knows that the public isn't concerned about the fact that the team that lost the game received just as much good from it educationally and physically as the team that won. They want a winner! So everyone connected with a school wants a yearbook that he can hand to his friends and say, "That's where I go," or "That's where I teach."

The writer does not mean to imply that if the pupils are given the sole responsibility for the publication of the book that the book will performe be a slipshod and amateurish job disappointing to everyone connected with it. There are countless schools throughout the country that are still producing their publications without benefit of professional help and are doing a highly acceptable piece of work. But their name is legion who are leaning heavily upon the aids just mentioned. If the writer has allowed to creep into this recital any hint of criticism for the printer or engraver, he wishes here to absolve them of any blame. Like so many other things, it is not only one condition that has brought about this state of affairs, but rather a combination of events. So, while yearbooks are becoming better and better in many respects, they are becoming less and less educational

from the pupil's point of view. Although there is a great deal that the modern printer or engraver can do to make the way a little easier and more pleasant for all concerned, there is still a fairly staggering amount of work that the pupil can and must do.

THE PHOTOGRAPHY

The photography alone in a modern yearbook is a tremendous item. In our own case, this phase of the work is under the direction of a very capable faculty member. He has associated with him a few boys who are genuinely interested in photography, and who have a keen sense of responsibility. Outside of the senior photographs and those of the faculty, practically every picture in the book is the work of this photographic staff. In all, there are between three and four hundred such pictures that they must take. These are taken every place and under all sorts of conditions. Dances, football games, plays, scenes, informal pictures of faculty and pupils are but a few of the many assignments that are theirs. The developing, printing, and enlarging of these afford a very valuable experience to those engaged in it.

Yearbooks are fast becoming picture books, so every year this phase of the work demands more time and energy. Picture taking is not simply a matter of walking out and snapping the trigger on a camera. To get fine results, no end of attention must be given to planning beforehand. Arrangements must be made with the individual, team, or group to be photographed. So the student photographer in addition to the technical skill required of him must be tactful and must carefully budget his own time to get all his work done. As time goes on, photography and art work assume more and more significance in the production of a yearbook, and literary work less and less. It is true that there are still write-ups of plays, games, and all the activities, but we have become a picture-conscious nation, so that the emphasis has shifted decidedly from the old books that published short stories, poems, and essays of literary merit to a book that must rival in interest the picture magazine of the day.

A CO-OPERATIVE ENDEAVOR

There is scarcely an individual in the school who is not concerned in some way with the publication of a yearbook. The seniors must promote activities to raise money to help pay for their book; they must carry the heaviest responsibility on all the various staffs; they must have their pictures taken. The faculty grudgingly and painfully agree to the ordeal of having their pictures taken; they co-operate as advisers of the many extracurriculum activities in helping to originate ideas for the inclusion of these activities in the book; as athletic coaches, they cheerfully give up much-needed time for practice in order that a group may be photographed; they support the publications financially. Even the janitors and kitchen help are called upon to submit to the candid cameraman, and be it said to their everlasting credit, they are among the most co-operative with whom the staff and the adviser must deal.

One could go on almost endlessly enumerating the things that make of the yearbook the grandest co-operative enterprise that the school undertakes. It still affords in spite of many handicaps ample opportunity for pupils to work with one another and with the faculty to produce something in which they are all interested.

THE COST

Now in closing a word about the cost of yearbooks. High-school yearbooks operate on budgets from one hundred dollars to five thousand dollars. Certainly educators would agree that what an individual school does should not be governed entirely by the amount of money that it can spend. Left to follow their own course without rather stringent supervision, yearbooks tend to become more and more pretentious. Competition rears its ugly head; each class feels that it must outdo every other class in the size and pretentiousness of its own book. More pressure must be brought to raise more money through plays and dances so that the class may have more money to spend for a better yearbook.

The soundest practice is for the administration and faculty advisers together with a committee of responsible pupils to sit down together and consider what a reasonable amount would be to spend on the book, and then to try to keep within that budget and not let the next class extend itself on some expensive but unnecessary feature that raises the cost several hundred dollars. The Upper Darby High School has agreed to keep expenses between \$3,500, and \$4,000. For the last few years its budget has run to about \$3,700., but it is always trying to find some way to cut here and there to keep within the limits that has been set. The book is a letter-press and engraving job. It has about one hundred sixty pages. Thirteen hundred copies are printed, some five hundred of which are bound in imitation leather. The printing bill is about \$2,100, and the engraving, \$1,400. The senior class pays about half the amount from its treasury, this money having been raised through plays, dances, candy sales, and the like; the other half is raised by subscriptions, assessments, and photography. Some few years ago, the school spent more money on its yearbook, but finally there came the time when it decided to reduce expenses, so it is now in the process of retrenching.

Time nor space does not permit here a discussion of the various means used to raise money for publications. Some of them are quite praiseworthy and others deserve nothing but utter condemnation. Too often local merchants are high-pressed into paying an undue amount of the burden in the guise of advertising. This could better be termed a subsidy, because of all the advertising secured by the school, yearbook advertising is probably the least productive. Administrators would do well to look into the methods being used in their schools to see what merit they have. Whatever business experience pupils get should be based upon sound business practice. The yearbook should not be allowed to degenerate into a begging or bludgeoning campaign.

Extracurriculum Activities in the County Secondary Schools

C H E S T E R E N L O W

Principal, Albany (Ohio) Consolidated Schools

SINCE THE TIME of the ancient Greeks, extracurriculum activities have been carried on in connection with education in some form or other. In the United States, extracurriculum activities have passed through three stages in development: first, they were ignored by educators; second, they were opposed by education authorities; and today in the third stage, they are recognized as a part of the educational program and given direction and supervision by school people.

Still, however, there is the problem of how these extracurriculum activities can best be fitted into the school day with the least interference with regular classes and yet receive the maximum benefits from the extracurriculum program. Originally, extracurriculum activities were carried on almost wholly outside the regular school day usually after school or at night. Today, however, many secondary schools are setting aside a regular period, within the regular school day, for activities.

Transportation of large numbers of pupils by busses and increased enrollment may have made the use of a regularly scheduled period for activities necessary in order that more pupils may have an opportunity to participate in the extracurriculum program. Research has revealed in a study made by R. C. Puckett¹, the use of such a period in secondary schools of over one thousand enrollment, but none in the smaller school.

OVER THREE HUNDRED SCHOOLS CONTACTED

The writer conducted a questionnaire study in three hundred three of the secondary schools under county supervision in the State of Ohio. Schools located in all of the counties of the state except Fayette, Morgan, and Ross replied. The questionnaire was designed to find out how extensively the smaller schools were using the activity period as an administrative device and the nature of the extracurriculum program.

The secondary schools under county supervision are making use of a regularly scheduled activity period for extracurriculum activities. In fact two hundred twenty-eight, or approximately four-fifths of the schools have such a period. This period varies in length from twenty minutes to ninety minutes, the average length being forty-two minutes.

Not all of the schools have such a period every day. Some have only one or two such periods each week. However, one hundred fifty-two schools do have it every day in the week. This means that in the schools

¹Puckett, R. C., "The Length of the High School Day," *American School Board Journal*, 84:52, May, 1932.

having a regularly scheduled activity period, an average of one hundred sixty-three minutes each week are devoted to extracurriculum activities.

There has been a general belief that the extracurriculum program of the small secondary schools was very limited. This study failed to confirm this supposition. There apparently is but little difference between the activities offered in the secondary schools with small enrollments and those offered in schools with large enrollments. Of course, a larger number of activities would naturally be found in the larger schools because the interests of the pupils would be more widely scattered.

EIGHT TYPES OF ACTIVITIES COMMON

The activities carried on in this period were divided into eight types as follows: Student Council or other student governing body, vocal music, instrumental music, clubs, intramural athletics, home-room activities, athletic-team practice, and miscellaneous.

One hundred eighty-four schools hold club meetings in the activity period, while one hundred seventy-seven hold assemblies at this time. One hundred sixty-nine schools have vocal music and one hundred sixty-one hold instrumental music in their activity period. The miscellaneous group included dramatics, motion pictures, school paper, and the like.

Not all schools have all types of activities and not all use the activity period for the administration of all of the various types of activities. Some schools promote a rich and varied program of activities while others confine their extracurriculum efforts to only a few projects. The largest number of the schools provide for a total of four, five, or six of the eight types of activities listed. The average number of activities provided for is five, while only three schools provided for all eight types of activities.

One of the big objections to the program of activities of the secondary schools has been that too few of the pupils participate in the program. More than two hundred of the two hundred thirty-eight schools having an activity period report that fifty per cent or more of their pupils participate in the program. Forty-seven schools reported that all pupils participated in some activity each week, while only eight schools have less than twenty-five per cent of their pupils participating.

There is no uniformity in the manner of giving recognition for participation in extracurriculum activities. Some give credit toward graduation, some use a point system, and others have a system of awards. Only twenty-seven per cent of the schools, however, do not give any formal recognition for participation in extracurriculum activities.

The problem of limiting participation in the extracurriculum program is still unsolved. There seems to be little agreement on this issue. Fifty-three per cent of the schools of this study do not limit participation. However, the difference between the number of schools that limit participation and the number that do not is not very important. Participation is limited in several ways. The most commonly used ones are as follows: the pupils are permitted to take part in only a definite number of

activities, the pupils are required to uphold a certain scholastic standard in academic subjects in order to participate in activities, the activities are grouped so that conflicting schedules will make it impossible for the pupil to participate in too many activities, and in some schools the pupil's extracurriculum load is guided by teachers or counsellors.

PERIOD FOLLOWING NOON MOST COMMON

Eighty-four schools hold their activity period immediately after the noon hour. This is the most commonly used period. Fifty-four schools use the period just before noon, forty use a system in which the activity period is rotated through the periods of the regular school day, while thirty-nine use the last period in the day. The reason for the popularity of the periods before noon and immediately after noon is probably that a part of the noon period can be used for activities.

It is interesting to note that one school reported having used a regularly scheduled activity period for over twenty years, while six have had such a period for over fifteen years. Only sixteen schools had such a period for less than two years. Twenty-one schools reported that they had discontinued the activity period within the last five years. Several interesting reasons were given for discontinuing it. The following is a partial list of the reasons given: too much time wasted by some groups, schedule difficulties, activities curricularized, change in administration, change of pupil interest in activities, poor discipline (many pupils considered it a loafing period), not enough pupils profitably engaged, crowded conditions, lack of properly trained teachers for directors, and too many pupils would rather study.

This study has revealed the fact that many problems in connection with the administration of extracurriculum activities are yet unsolved. Some of these are: Should participation be limited? How should recognition be given? Should the program of activities gradually become a part of the curriculum? Would it be desirable to attempt to increase the extracurriculum program? These and many other similar problems merit consideration and investigation.

Where Does the Graduate Stand?

JOSEPH A. NYBERG

Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Illinois

The work of averaging all the grades of a senior in order to determine his rank in a graduating class is no small task, particularly in the large secondary school. The work can be greatly reduced if the computer is not timid about using negative numbers and if he realizes the value of the number, *zero*. The method explained in this article can be used also with marking systems that use letter grades instead of numbers.

If asked to average five numbers, as 82, 87, 89, 79, and 92, most people would add the numbers and divide by 5. The work can be done more

rapidly by first estimating the average, say 85, and then averaging the differences between 85 and the given numbers. The differences here are $-3, +2, +4, -6$, and $+7$. The sum of the differences is $+4$; the average of the differences is $4/5$; hence the correct average is $85 \frac{4}{5}$ which is obtained by adding $4/5$ to 85. If 86 had been used as the estimate, the differences would be $-4, +1, +3, -7$, and $+6$. The sum of these differences is -1 ; the average of the differences is $-1/5$; and the correct average is $86 - 1/5$ or $85 \frac{4}{5}$, as before. Problems of this type should be used in elementary algebra to illustrate an important use of negative numbers, but they are found in few books. Evidently, the better the estimate the less the addition.

The method can be still further improved if the numbers to be averaged differ by a constant or a multiple of that constant. For example, to average the numbers

75, 80, 85, 90, 85, 95, 80, 85, 90, and 75

estimate that the average is 85, and then express the differences as multiples of 5. The first number, 75, is 10 less than the estimated average, but 10 is two fives. Hence we write merely the number, -2 . For the above list we would therefore write

$-2, -1, 0, -1, 0, +2, -1, 0, +1, \text{ and } -2$.

The sum of these numbers is -4 , and their average is -4 ; hence the correct average is

$85 - .4 \text{ times } 5, \text{ or } 85 - 2, \text{ or } 83$.

Particular attention is called to the number -4 in the above example. Since it will be referred to several times the name *knar* is given it.

The above example for finding averages for a group of pupils has another and still greater advantage. If the *knares* for each pupil's grade is computed, and the *knares* are arranged in order from the largest to the smallest, we shall have arranged the seniors in order from the best to the poorest. For the purposes of ranking the pupils, the actual final average is not needed. It can of course be computed by the simple formula:

$$\text{Average} = \text{Estimated average} + 5 \times \text{knares}, \text{ or}$$

$$\text{Average} = \text{Estimated average} + (\text{constant difference}) \times \text{knares}.$$

Many schools use the letters A, B, C . . . for marks. Regardless of what numbers may or may not be associated with the letters, the *knares* can be used for ranking purposes provided there is a constant difference associated with the marks; that is, the difference between A and B, between B and C . . . are equal. If there are four possible passing marks, and the letter E is used to represent failure, then the difference between D and E should equal the difference between C and D. If the passing grades, for example, represent 99, 91, 83, and 75, then the number associated with the failure mark should be 67. The author has examined marking systems in which the numbers associated with the passing grades were 95, 90, 85, 80, and 75, and a mark of 40 given to each failure. With such a system 85 can still be selected as the estimated average. If so, the *knares* will be found as follows:

95 equals the estimated average plus 2 fives

90 equals the estimated average plus 1 five

85 equals the estimated average plus 0 fives

80 equals the estimated average minus 1 five

75 equals the estimated average minus 2 fives

Failure equals the estimated average minus 9 fives.

The numbers 2, 1, 0, -1, -2, and -9 are therefore associated with each of the grades when computing the *knar*. The injustice of such a system is now evident. A pupil who averages 85 in his work would need 9 marks of 90 each to redeem a single failure.

RANKING HYDE PARK GRADUATES

As an example of the simplicity and speed of this method the author will explain in detail how the graduates from one class at Hyde Park High School were ranked. The school uses the letters S (superior), E (excellent), G (good), F (fair), and D (failure). For many school purposes, such as eligibility to various positions, the grade S counts 4 points, E as 3, G as 2, and F as 1. For our purposes we shall estimate that each pupil's average is G, the letters will count: S as 2, E as 1, G as 0, F as -1, D as -2.

From the official records of a pupil his grades were read to a secretary who recorded them on a 3 x 5 filing card. The card shows that John Doe in the major subjects got 3 S's, 9 E's, 13 G's, 6 F's, and 1 D; in minor subjects (which yield $\frac{1}{2}$ credit) he got 1 S, 1 E, 3 G's, and 1 F; and in Physical Education (which yields $\frac{1}{4}$ credit) he got 1 E, 5 G's, 2 F's, and 1 D. At the bottom of the card is a fraction containing six numbers. These can be found mentally as follows:

(1) Looking at the major subjects, the number of S's, or 3, is multiplied by 2; the number of E's is added; no attention is paid to the number of G's since they are multiplied by 0; the number of F's is subtracted, and twice the number of D's is subtracted. This gives $6 + 9 - 6 - 2$, or 7, the first number in the numerator. Many short cuts in this work are possible. Thus the computer can subtract the F's from the E's at the start, or combine twice the D's with the F's. On many cards there are no S's or D's and one may merely subtract the F's from the E's. To promote accuracy the result should be computed for all the cards before the next step is performed.

(2) The second number in the numerator is found in the same way from the minor subjects; 2 for each S, 1 for E, 0 for G, etc. However, since minor subjects get only half as much credit as major subjects, the sum is divided by 2. Dividing by 2 after finding the sum is easier than counting 1 for S, $\frac{1}{2}$ for E, and so forth. Again, for accuracy and speed, this number should be computed for all the cards before starting the next step.

(3) The third number in the numerator is the result of a similar computation for credits in Physical Education; 1 for the E, -2 for the two F's, and -2 for the D equals -3. But since Physical Education counts only as $\frac{1}{4}$ credit, we divide by 4 and write $-\frac{3}{4}$.

(4) The first number, 32, in the denominator is the total of the major subjects which the pupil had attempted during his four years. The failure in one subject is included in the total.

(5) The second number, 3, in the denominator is the total number of minor credits attempted; 6 minors give 3 credits.

(6) The third number, $2\frac{1}{4}$, in the denominator is the total number of credits attempted in Physical Education; 9 times $\frac{1}{4}$ is $2\frac{1}{4}$. Again the failure is included.

As mentioned previously, each of the six numbers is computed in turn for all the cards. Then the six numbers are combined to form the next fraction, $7\frac{1}{4}/37\frac{1}{4}$.

After finding the quotient, .195 in this example, 2 is added, the result appearing at the top of the card. Adding 2 is unnecessary as far as ranking purposes are concerned but was done here because the pupils are accustomed to counting the grades as 4, 3, 2, 1. If the numerator of the final fraction is negative the usual care must be taken when adding 2; thus, $-.345 + 2 = 1.655$.

PUPILS GIVE THEIR ASSISTANCE

The finding of the quotients is done by pupils in the mathematics classes. Each pupil is handed one of the cards with instructions to do the dividing on the other side of the card and to check the division by multiplying the quotient by the divisor (not the divisor by the quotient). The pupils then exchange cards and check all the work again. The work is not without value to the pupil. The quotients were computed to the nearest ten-thousandth and then rounded off to the nearest thousandth. This degree of precision is needed to avoid possible ties when the class numbers 300 or more. When constructing a table for the quotients, the use of the numbers -2 to +2 in place of the usual 0 to 4 shows to advantage. Using 0 to 4, a perfect score would make the numerator 144 and the poorest score would make it 36; hence the table must cover a range of 108 at intervals of $\frac{1}{4}$. Using -2 to +2, a perfect score would be 72 and the poorest score -36 (assuming no failures). But the table need cover only the range from 0 to 72 since the same table can be used for negative numerators as well as for positive ones. Hence the table would be only two thirds as large.

Clerks unfamiliar with statistical work think that assigning the values 4, 3, 2, 1 to the various letters does not lead to the same ranking of pupils as would the use of numerical grades and that the use of the numbers 4, 3, 2, 1 is justified because it simplifies the arithmetic and is approximately correct. This belief is wrong. Both methods lead to the same ranking of the pupils provided there is a constant difference between all the grades. Some clerks also think that it is wrong to neglect all the G grades; as one of them said, "Why should a pupil bother to get a grade of G if it does not count at all?" The simplest answer is: if the grade were not G then it would be a lower one, which counts against the average, or a higher grade, which would raise the average; hence every G helps to maintain the estimated average.

News Notes

HONOR TO DR. THOMAS H. BRIGGS—Leaders in education and their influential works seldom are recognized and honored by those in the field of education as often as they should be. Occasionally the National Association of Secondary-School Principals learns of an organized affair to give honor and credit to one who has been a strong influence in shaping the educational philosophy of our time. Recently the Thomas H. Briggs Club of Teachers College, Columbia University held a meeting of all who at any time belonged to the club during the twenty-five years of its life. More than one hundred were in attendance. Several hundred letters were received from members living at a distance from New York City. These were in a beautifully bound volume of living testimonials arranged by Tiffany for presentation to Dr. Briggs.

The meeting of the club had both usual and unusual features. Usual, in that it was planned as a regular meeting and with Dr. Briggs as the customary presiding officer. Unusual, in that Dr. Briggs was prevailed upon to speak on his own philosophical views on the place and function of secondary education. Unusual, too, in that Joseph Allen, Headmaster of the Brooklyn Polytechnic Preparatory School made the presentation speech and made the presentation which included a Kirsten pipe to Dr. Briggs. The occasion was in charge of member Curtis H. Threlkeld, Principal of the Columbia High School, South Orange, N. J.

WAR AGAINST WASTE—Just how active is your school in the national program against waste? Many secondary schools already have given specific attention through regular classes and other means to this very important problem. The war against waste is just one of the essential ways through which our war against totalitarianism can be promoted to a successful end. There is hardly a thing that the individual buys today that does not affect our national defense program. So reports Leon Henderson of the *Office of Price Administration and Civilian Supply*. During 1941-42 approximately 7,334,000 secondary-school pupils functioned as consumers. Their purchases involved a large expenditure of money. Therefore, they should be taught to buy carefully, to take good care of things they have, and to waste nothing. In the classroom they can be taught to understand economic citizenship and then to make it effective by putting this knowledge to work in the service of their community. One of the first things that they can do is to sign the *Consumer's Victory Pledge*. What could be more productive of real teaching situations than that of conducting a campaign for all members of the school to sign the *Consumer's Victory Pledge* and then to live up to their commitment. This pledge signifies an intention on the part of the signer to do his utmost to be a good consumer. Campaigns to secure these signatures can be conducted in various ways: (a) the pledge can be distributed at an assembly, (b) booths can be placed in the school corridors in charge of pupils who will secure signatures of other pupils, (c) classes may be influenced to join as a group. Copies of these pledges can be secured from the *School and College Staff, Consumer Division, Office of Price Administration, Washington, D. C.* The Staff will be glad to supply a school with any number needed.

Some other activities in which the school might engage to bring to the attention of the student body the importance of the need for conservation are: presentation of a consumer's week to the entire student body; classes as definite parts of the regular school program of studies; special school assemblies on such topics as "Consumer Education in War Time," and "Conservation and the Victory Program"; a bulletin board devoted to

consumer interest; a consumer-poster display; a library display of consumer-education publications and other materials that deal specifically with the matter of saving such things as newspapers, rags, metal, rubber, and wool, in our defense program; devote a special edition of the school newspaper or regularly set up a "Consumer's Column" in the paper; and other means of bringing to the attention of the pupils the great necessity for a campaign against waste. The Office of Price Administration has quite a quantity of material available for free distribution. This material includes: a four-page pamphlet entitled *The War and Your Pocketbook* by Leon Henderson, a five-page dramatization for secondary schools entitled *A Consumer's Pledge Against Waste* (January 1942), *A Suggested High-School Lesson*, *A Suggested School-Assembly Program*, *A Suggested Outline for a High-School Consumer's Week*, *Save Waste Paper for Victory* (A suggested lesson outline), *132 Million Consumers*, and *The Consumer's Pledge for Total Defense*. Simply write to the above address making your wants known. All of this material is free in quantities necessary to meet individual school needs. A copy of the *Consumer Victory Pledge* follows. This pledge is five by three and one-half inches in size and has thereon, in addition to the following material, the seal of the United States.

The Consumer's Victory Pledge

As a consumer, in the total defense of democracy, I will do my part to make my home, my community, my country ready, efficient, and strong.

*I will buy carefully
I will take good care of the things I have
I will waste nothing*

Signature.....

When you sign this pledge, you are joining the ranks of the millions of consumers co-operating in National Defense. Send it to:

**SCHOOL AND COLLEGE STAFF
Consumer Division, Office of Price Administration
Washington, D. C.**

SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPILS FAVOR ACCELERATION IN COLLEGE—Almost half the secondary-school pupils in the United States favor an accelerated college program which will enable them to complete their educations more quickly, as called for by the present emergency. This was revealed when the results of a survey conducted by Northwestern University among 9,354 secondary-school pupils throughout the country were announced. Forty-eight per cent of the pupils queried said they preferred one of three types of accelerated programs to the traditional four-year course with annual summer vacations. Percentages ranged from 35% on Chicago's North Shore to 54% in the western states. Fifty per cent of the boys and 45% of the girls favored acceleration, but indications were that many boys voted against speed-ups because they must work during the summer vacations. Most popular of three suggested faster

programs was one calling for three regular years and two summer quarters, averaging 16 or 17 hours, with graduation coming in June of the third year. This was selected by 20.6% of those voting, or 43.5% of those favoring acceleration. Second choice among speed-up programs was one calling for three regular years and three summer quarters, averaging 15 hours each, with graduation in August of the third year. This was chosen by 17.3% of those voting, or 36.2% of those favoring changes. Only 9.6% of the total favored the third suggestion, involving two and one-half regular years and two summer quarters, averaging 18 hours each, and with graduation coming in March of the third year. This demand for both normal and accelerated education indicates that colleges and universities must be prepared to maintain flexible educational programs during the war period.

FOR THESE OUR CHILDREN—This is the title of an interesting 20-page illustrated booklet published by the San Jose Unified School District of California. It presents in words and pictures a sample of the many activities performed by school pupils. The reader is given an excellent picture of what San Jose schools are doing for their pupils in order to improve their citizenship, their health, their personal and social adjustment, and their ability to earn a living at a job. This in the hand of the local taxpayer certainly will be found productive in keeping him informed about his schools, and at the same time provide reliable data for him to draw valid conclusions when he exercises his right and duty as a voter on school issues.

BOMBER FUND—The senior class of Milford High School, Michigan, has established a fund for the purchase of army equipment. Other schools of the state are doing the same. Dr. Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction, will act as treasurer of the fund and will acknowledge all contributions to it. The Milford school's initial contribution of \$104 is the result of giving up certain trips and parties. It represents a contribution of \$2.00 per Senior. Other activities, noted in previous issues of *News of the Week* include the *Waste Paper* and *Scrap Iron* collections, the purchase of Defense Bonds and Stamps, and school staff and pupil contributions to the Red Cross.

TRAFFIC-TRAINING COURSES—War time is bringing new problems to educators. Some of these are in the field of highway traffic. Two special intensive courses for educators relating to war-time traffic problems are included in the Fifth National Institute for Traffic Training which this year is being held at Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, June 15-26. These courses are School War-time Traffic Problems and War-time Driver Training. The first one is a two-week seminar for educators to be conducted by F. R. Noffsinger, AAA Educational Consultant, while the last one is a two-week course for driving instructors to be conducted by Amos E. Neyhart, AAA Consultant on Road Training. The cost of either course is \$10.00 a week. For further information write to Sidney J. Williams, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, or the director of the course in which you are interested.

IN THE LIVES OF ITS GRADUATES—The El Paso High School of Texas has recently issued a 63-page brochure telling about its work. Under the direction of the Superintendent of Schools, a questionnaire survey of the 50 years of service of this school was begun in the fall of 1939. No attempt was made to reach all of its 5,000 alumni but 1,500 names were selected representing every class graduated by the school. The results of this project are set forth in this brochure. The reaction of the graduates are most interesting as well as informative. The work was compiled by Lillian G. Huggett. Other publications of this school district are the *El Paso Schools Standard* and the *Patrons Bulletin*. The former is composed of articles about the work and interest of the city schools while the latter is a 4-page newspaper published periodically as a substitute for an Annual Report. This paper provides public information and

promotes school welfare. All these publications provide excellent means through which the citizens are kept informed about their schools.

AVIATION EDUCATION—Wall charts for schoolroom use, presenting silhouettes of American military aircraft and other means of identifying fighting planes, are available from the Air Youth Division of the National Aeronautic Association, 718 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington, D. C. The sample chart costs 15 cents. The association also has other materials relative to types of programs needed in the schools as well as types of courses that can be offered such as one on building and flying model airplanes.

AMERICA'S TOWN MEETING OF THE AIR—In co-operation with the Town Hall, Columbia University Press, 123 West 43rd Street, New York, publishes the public discussion held each Thursday night over the radio for a season of 26 weeks. These copies are available at 10 cents each or \$2.00 a year for a subscription to all issues. In addition Town Hall, Inc., 123 West 43rd Street, New York prepares *The Town Meeting Preview* and a *Handbook* for group leaders. It also assists groups through correspondence and through field service. The bulletin *Town Meeting* not only contains the discussions of the main speakers of the evening but also the question and answer part of the program, a short sketch of the main speaker's life and some of the letter reactions received by mail from the listening audience. A subscription to this publication would provide excellent material for classroom or library use in the secondary school.

LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT IN PENNSYLVANIA SECONDARY SCHOOLS—A study of Latin enrollment in the secondary schools of Pennsylvania shows a decline in the decade of 1929-1939 both in per cent of the total secondary-school enrollment and in actual numbers. The figures reveal that while the total secondary-school enrollment from 1929 to 1939 increased from 383,261 to 663,807 pupils, or 73.4 per cent, the number enrolled in all Latin courses decreased during the decade from 103,069 to 92,852, or 9.9 per cent. In every grade except the tenth the enrollment declined. From the enrollment figures it is impossible to ascertain the number of years the subject is studied by individual pupils. Many secondary schools offer the subject only on the senior high-school level. A considerable number of four-year high schools offer two years of Latin while the larger ones, as a general rule, have a three-year program. The decline in enrollment at the end of each year is exceedingly high, in fact, higher than the actual data indicated because a considerable number of the upper grade enrollment is in the first and second year of study.

During the school year ending July, 1934, there were 68,674 pupils enrolled in French courses in the public secondary schools of Pennsylvania; 15,663 pupils were enrolled in German classes; 2,282 were enrolled in classes of Italian; and 16,606 in Spanish. In the school year ending July, 1939, available data indicated that French enrollments in the public schools had decreased 14 per cent, that enrollments in German were practically constant while those in Italian had increased 92 per cent. A decrease in Spanish enrollment was shown to be 29 per cent. During this same period the enrollment in Latin decreased from 111,799 in 1934 to 92,852 in 1939, a decrease of 17 per cent.—Pennsylvania Public Instruction Bulletin. Vol. IX No. 5, February, 1942.

SUMMER WORKSHOP FOR PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS—Summer quarter plans of the University of Chicago emphasize programs for teachers who wish to work toward advanced degrees and for those who desire in-service training. Special adjustment of classes for teachers will enable them to complete their work before Labor Day. The Summer quarter will have two six-week terms, the first beginning June 23 and ending August 1; the second beginning August 3 and ending September 12. Six Workshops on various educational levels will be among the special features offered by the University's Department of Edu-

cation. The Workshop method, developed several years ago by Dr. Ralph Tyler, chairman of the department, enables teachers to work under the guidance of curriculum and examination experts on the solution of problems that they bring from their own institutions. Workshops in secondary education will be held during the first seven weeks of the Summer quarter. A Workshop in Human Development, particularly for counselors, school psychologists, and guidance workers, will also be held during the same period. Participants in the Workshop will study the physical and cultural forces that shape human nature as well as human growth and development in relation to the learning process.

SCHOOL DEFENSE CLUBS FOR VICTORY—The people in America are uniting, banding together, to do the many tasks that fall to them in the war program. In every state, in every county, in every town, in every block, this spontaneous and directed organization is taking place. In one branch of our society, such unification is of utmost importance. This is in the schools. For not alone does a "School Defense Club for Victory" assist in the sale of stamps, in salvage work, in other departments of civilian participation, but the molding of pupils into a conscious, active group, is one of the best protections possible in case of direct attack by our enemies. Because information on how to organize defense activities in the schools was extremely important and deserving of wide distribution, the pupils of Samuel J. Tilden High School in Brooklyn, New York, wrote essays on "How to Organize a Defense Club in Your School." Through the co-operation of its principal and faculty advisors, three thousand participated. A prize of a \$25.00 Defense Bond, offered by *All-American Comics, Inc.*, was awarded the pupil writing the best essay. This prize-winning outline and essay will be sent to any principal or teacher on request. Mr. Gaines, the president of *All-American Comics* appointed to represent the U. S. Treasury Department in the comic magazine field, has organized all the comic magazine publishers into a group to co-ordinate and increase the publicity given to Defense Stamps and Bonds in comic magazines. The comic magazine is a comparatively recent development in the juvenile field. Mr. Gaines was the originator of the comic magazine in its present form, and also "discovered" *Superman* after it had been turned down by practically every syndicate in the country. Approximately 125 comic magazines are being published today, with a monthly circulation of approximately fifteen million. According to a recent survey, showing at least four readers to each magazine, this means a total of approximately sixty million readers monthly who will be reached by this new appeal worked out by the U. S. Treasury Department and the publishers to buy more Defense Stamps.

SUMMER SERVICE PROJECTS—The *Chestnut Ridge Camp Association* under the direction of Alfred Lee Klaer has for the past few years been developing a camp for youth from Morgantown and from the mining towns in the vicinity. With a tremendous need for recreational facilities to be met, this camp in the mountains east of Morgantown is making an important contribution to the lives of these youth. There are many industries in the area to be visited. There is also an opportunity to study a number of experiments in community planning under both private and government auspices. The work projects engaged in by these youth include construction of two cabins for children, a work and storage house, building of two springs, brush clearance, and assisting with Chestnut Ridge Campers. Additional projects will be undertaken as time permits. The enrollment is to be approximately 15 boys and 10 girls. Applicants should have completed their junior year in high school, or be between 15 and 18 years of age. David French, Director of Student Activities, Long Island College of Medicine and director of *Chestnut Ridge Work Camp*, will be in charge of the camp. All inquiries and requests for application blanks

should be addressed to Ormsbee W. Robinson, Executive Director, Associated Junior Work Camps, 33 Central Park West, New York.

TWENTY-TWO WAR-TIME EDUCATIONAL SERVICES—The United States Office of Education offers its services to the Nation in the present crisis with an effectiveness of leadership in great contrast to the confusions, duplications, and wasteful practices that marked the Federal educational programs of World War I. Today the Federal government wisely speaks to education through the U. S. Office of Education. A united education responds. Following are some of the major war-time educational services already developed co-operatively by the U. S. Office of Education and State and local educational forces: (1) Training Skilled Workers for Industrial Production, (2) Training Engineers, Chemists, Physicists, and Production Managers, (3) "Food for Freedom" and Farm Machinery Repair, (4) Training for Business especially in Distributive Occupations, (5) Training for Homemaking, (6) Vocational Rehabilitation, (7) Office of Education War-time Commission, (8) Films to Speed Up War-time Training, (9) School and College Civilian Morale Service, (10) Inter-American Education, (11) "Boom Town" School Housing, (12) Defense Savings Stamps and Related Education, (13) Problems of Civilian Defense, (14) Aviation Education, (15) Victory Gardening, (16) Nutrition, (17) Radio Script and Transcription Exchange, (18) Half a Million Model Airplanes, (19) Information Exchange on Education and the War, (20) Planning for Post-War Readjustments, (21) Biweekly Newspaper—"Education for Victory," and (22) Continuing Series of Publications on Education and National Defense.

INSTITUTE ON WORLD PROBLEMS—The World Federation of Education Associations will conduct a five-week *Institute on World Problems* at the American University, Washington, D. C., July 12 to August 15, it was announced recently by Paul Monroe, president of the Federation. Outstanding scholars from Europe, Asia and the Americas, including a number from the diplomatic corps and from international agencies in Geneva, will participate. Three basic seminars will be held: Backgrounds of the War, Critical Evaluation of the Machinery and Means for International Co-operation, and Post-War Problems. In announcing the Institute, Dr. Monroe also announced indefinite postponement of the Federation's Montreal conference "until such time as a truly representative delegate assembly can be held." Originally scheduled for this summer, the conference had to be postponed because the war has made it impossible for many countries to send the necessary number of delegates for a representative assembly. Information regarding the Institute on World Problems may be obtained from headquarters office of the World Federation of Education Associations, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

TRAINING FOR THE NAVY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL—Specific suggestions have been received from the Navy regarding immediate contributions that can be made by the schools to the war efforts. To carry out these suggestions, schools ought to make every possible attempt to introduce practical units in radio and telephone communication and the Morse Code. Admiral Randall Jacobs, Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, has stated further: "The Navy is convinced that one of the greatest contributions that could be made to the defense program by your school would be the concentration of your efforts wholeheartedly and, if need be, sternly to the accomplishment of the objective of physical fitness; physical fitness in order that the youth of America will be able to take their places in the armed forces of the country, or as skilled and toughened workers in civilian defense. The Navy is anxious to receive from among the civilian ranks, former students and others, men who are physically trained and equipped to meet the rigors of this war; to fight an enemy which

has for years emphasized physical training. However, in addition to this physical strength, it is our fervent hope that the schools and institutions of our country will instill in their students an appreciation and love of country; an emotional awakening to the cherished protection, and also to the sacred responsibility of their birthright. No man anywhere, ever, deserves to be free who is not willing to fight to preserve that freedom. A resolute determination to defend our way of life with the last ounce of our strength, the last measure of our wealth must burn in the heart and soul of every young American."

A SCHOOL SAFETY PROGRAM FOR THE EMERGENCY—*A Guide for the In-service Education of Teachers* has just been released by the Committee on Teacher Education for Safety of the National Safety Council. Before the attack on Pearl Harbor, the committee had planned to develop experimentally, a guide for in-service teacher education in safety. With the coming of the war, two factors were immediately apparent: (1) School administrators now have no time to co-operate in an experimental venture, and (2) There is a distinct need for a concise guide covering air-raid precautions and giving suggestions for adjusting the regular safety program to the emergency. Adjusting their plans to the needs of the moment, the committee decided to postpone publication of the experimental guide for the duration of the war. *A School Safety Program for the Emergency* contains the December release of the Office of Civilian Defense covering air-raid preparations, excerpts from special bulletins issued in selected cities which show methods of adjusting national rules to local requirements, and a school inspection blank including such matters as apparatus for fighting incendiary bombs. A section on adjusting the present school safety program to the emergency and stimulating teacher growth to meet the challenge is included. A complete bibliography covers both aids for the teacher and pupil texts. Single copies of this manual are available without charge to *superintendents or principals*. Write Committee on Teacher Education for Safety, National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois, and request a free copy of *Safety Education Memo No. 21*.

THE INTER-AMERICAN DEMONSTRATION CENTER PROJECT—The U. S. Office of Education in co-operation with the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs is establishing centers. The establishment for these centers has for its purpose the development of a better understanding and a greater appreciation of the other American republics among children, young people, and adults. Some schools will accomplish this purpose through integrating the idea into existing courses, through developing new activities, through giving new and different emphasis to Inter-American studies. Others will accomplish their purpose by introducing new courses into the curriculum, by setting up workshops, and by other means. The Office of Education has no program to impose, but expects each center to develop an Inter-American program in keeping with its interests, needs, and resources. In the U. S. Office of Education Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant Commissioner, has general direction of the project. Working with her are the following staff members: Helen K. Mackintosh, Office Co-ordinator; William T. Melchior of Syracuse University, Supervisor. In addition to an office co-ordinator and a project supervisor, the Office of Education has a staff of three field representatives who will work in close co-operation with the centers through a local co-ordinator. In addition, there will be special consultants in fields such as music, art, social studies, and curriculum, who will be available to centers for short periods of time. The Inter-American Demonstration Center Project will be able to draw upon other Office of Education services in the field of Inter-American studies. These include Latin American exhibits, packets from the Information Exchange, and some free materials from the Service Center. Provision will be made for the exchange of ideas and materials among the centers.

STUDENTS EARN THEIR WAY THROUGH COLLEGE—University of Chicago students who must finance their own education hereafter will have unusual opportunities for work and study, as one of the results of the University's recent reorganization. They will be able to attend classes and to work on regular schedules because of the adoption of a "split week" program. Last autumn the University and Marshall Field & Co., Chicago retail organization, undertook an experiment in employing University students on a regular part-time basis, which assured the students a steady weekly salary. Somewhat less than 100 students have been so employed, and the results have been so satisfactory to the store and to the University that opportunities have been opened to many more students. Beginning with the spring quarter, all students will attend classes three days a week, on either a Monday-Wednesday-Friday or Tuesday-Thursday-Saturday cycle. Students who must work will have three days free in which to take the regular part-time jobs available. Such an arrangement provides one position with two alternating students.

Not all students, however, will be employed. Those who are will be permitted to carry only two-thirds of the usual academic program. By attending the summer quarter, however, employed students will be able to complete the equivalent of a normal academic year of work in one calendar year and so keep pace with what was a usual pre-war schedule. Tuition for this full year of study is the same as for three quarters of full work. The "split week" schedule will enable hundreds of students to obtain regular employment at wages which will pay the cost of their education. The arrangement made with Marshall Field & Co. is being extended to other organizations. Defense industries in Chicago also want many men and even some women for part-time work.

JUNIOR COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS—Neither the draft nor increased employment opportunity for young people has kept any significant number of junior college students away from their books, according to enrollment figures recently collected from all junior colleges in the country by Walter C. Eells, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges. In one year the nation's two-year colleges have added 31,000 young people to their enrollments, increasing the total enrollment from 236,162, as reported last year, to 267,406 reported this year, a growth of 13.2 per cent. The number of junior colleges has also increased—from 610 last year to 627 this year. In the past five years the enrollment in the junior colleges of the country has more than doubled. It is also significant that whereas in past years many students attended junior college with plans to transfer to the third year of a four-year college or university, today the majority are taking two-year "terminal" courses leading to a junior college degree, usually the Associate in Arts before they are 20 years of age.

AMERICA HAS GONE FORWARD—An editorial in the Winston-Salem (*N.C.*) *Journal* says in part: *Read This and Take Courage*—If you have any doubt about the future of America, here are some facts that will give you new faith in your country: More American boys and girls are attending college in the United States than in all the rest of the countries of the world put together. There are nine times as many pupils in the secondary schools of America as there were forty years ago. The health of our people is better than ever before in our history. In two generations the death rate from tuberculosis has been reduced from 200 to 55; typhoid from 36 to two; diphtheria from 40 to two. It has been said that 704,000 people are now alive who would not have been here but for the contribution to our health and welfare that have been made by preventive medicine in the last few decades. We have developed a public conscience with reference to such matters as workmen's compensation for accidents, old age insurance, slum clearance, and adult education.

The Book Column

PROFESSIONAL BOOKS:

AIKIN, W. M. *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1942. 157 pp. \$1.75. In this series, Adventure in American Education, the reader will learn how thirty American secondary schools, with the co-operation of colleges and universities, found ways to improve their service to the nation and its youth. The study and its far-reaching implications for all secondary schools and colleges are presented with directness and clarity. Perhaps the most significant finding is that the American secondary school can fulfill its entire responsibility to all youth, to the five who are not going to college as well as to the one who is. It is established beyond question that the secondary-school curriculum need not be bound by conventional patterns of content or organization. Whatever experiences will best meet common or individual needs should comprise the curriculum. Meaningful work appropriate to each pupil's ability, maturity, and probable future should mark every day of his secondary-school career; striving for credits to be stored up and used as counterfeit coins to pay one's way into college should cease. Secondary schools can be trusted by the colleges with a greater measure of freedom. The experience of the Thirty Schools shows that freedom generates a greater feeling of responsibility and power to use freedom creatively. Under such conditions schools come alive, and the latent capacities of teachers and administrators become fully employed in the challenging task of reconstruction. Here is a complete account of the entire study in summary form. Dr. T. H. Briggs of Teachers College has said: "This book, along with the supporting details, will undoubtedly rank as one of the major contributions of our age to the improvement of secondary education."

BELTING, P. E., and BELTING, N. M. *Modern High School Curriculum*. Champaign, Ill: Garrard Press, 1942. 276 pp. \$2.50. So far as education in the public schools of the United States is concerned, it must represent typical content situations of life because of the probability that the application to life will be greater. Subject matter should be chosen according as it is typical of life situations, generalized as broadly as possible, and applied to life as often as possible. Education itself in a sense is nothing but the transfer of the worth of the school to life. Contrasts are sharp in respect to education in a democracy. While one aim is to encourage uniformity in thought on public questions, the equally legitimate purpose of education is to develop individuality. Pupils are expected to draw their own conclusions with the guidance of teachers. Following the general discussion of underlying principles, the authors then discuss thirteen subject fields in which the principles are applied. The concluding chapter "Summary and Integration" briefly summarizes each of the preceding chapters.

BENJAMIN, HAROLD. *Emergent Conceptions of the School Administrator's Task*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1942. 26 pp. \$1.00. One of the Cubberly Lectures in which the author interprets current educational trends in school administration. The conclusion, a creed of five "articles" should be of concern to every school administrator.

BUSH, G. L. *Science Education in Consumer Buying*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. 228 pp. \$2.35. This volume points out the need for greater consumer education and emphasizes the opportunity and responsibility of science teachers in meeting this need. It describes sources of information for teachers and pupils and

offers abundant concrete illustrative material. The author suggests changes in the nature of much of the consumer education which is now offered and directs attention to broader generalizations and problems for solution.

CLEMENT, J. A. *Manual for Analyzing and Selecting Textbooks*. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1942. 119 pp. \$2.00. The chief purpose of this manual is to serve as a guide to superintendents, principals, supervisors, teachers and others in the analysis, appraisal, and selection of textbooks. It contains certain items and criteria which are felt to be consequential whenever analyzing and appraising and selecting textbooks. Chapters II and III characterize and explain, at some length, items which are felt to be common to any and all textbooks used in elementary and secondary schools. The purpose of the following two chapters is to enable all persons to be clear about the items used in the general analysis and general appraisal outlines. This book, together with a 12-page score sheet will be found very useful by schoolmen. While considerable has been done in this field, a score sheet and a description book of procedures for analyzing textbooks have not recently been published.

COPLAND, AARON. *Our New Music*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1941. 305 pp. \$2.50. Many music lovers feel that they cannot appreciate modern music, and even those who like to listen to it often find it difficult to evaluate. Why does it almost always, at first hearing, sound so disturbing? Why does it appear to be lacking in melody? Is it always complex and formidable? What aims and ideas have the composers in mind? The author attempts to answer these questions. He shows first of all how contemporary music grew naturally out of the work of the masters. The book offers a brilliant panorama of fifty years of new music. It also provides an introduction to the formative ideas of the period and a survey of recent and current trends. Then the author discusses individually certain leading composers of Europe and America. A special section is devoted to six outstanding Americans, together with a discussion of Carlos Chavez and a review of certain aspects of the author's own career as a composer. The book closes with a consideration of developments in new musical media—the radio, the phonograph, the movies. Such a book gives the reader not only a better understanding of new music but a basis for selection of what is good and increased pleasure in listening. The author's manner of writing is clear and simple in the extreme.

DAVIS, E. W. *A Functional Pattern Technique for Classification of Jobs*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. 128 pp. \$1.60. Every year millions of workers are classified into thousands of jobs. Job classification is a problem faced by many guidance and personnel agencies in schools, business, and governmental bureaus. The "functional pattern" technique for job classification developed in this book can be employed in any school, business, or governmental agency to classify job titles into jobs according to the most common pattern of functions in each job. It provides a means of coding all the functions of a person in a job into a "functional pattern." Thus, for the first time, whole patterns can be tabulated and classified as easily as isolated functions. The method is easy to handle for large scale classifications also since it has been worked out on Hollerith tabulating machines. The technique is illustrated by data from a national survey of nearly five thousand advertising men performing from one to twenty-five functions.

DOANE, D. C. *The Needs of Youth*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. 150 pp. \$2.10. Curriculum workers, supervisors, and others concerned with effective organization of the

curriculum for the education of adolescents will be interested in this study. It is based on the premise that for maximum effectiveness any desired learning should be directly related in the mind of the learner to his own welfare, his own interests, and his own needs. The more clearly learning is focused on such concerns, the more efficient the learning process will be. To this end, the study evaluates the commonly assumed needs of youth with respect to their adequacy as focal points for instruction or for organization of the curriculum. Representative statements and studies of youth's needs, problems, and concerns are reviewed. Results of an inventory study are presented in which over two thousand youth revealed the extent of their concern with these assumed needs.

GILES, H. H., et al. *Exploring the Curriculum*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1942. 362 pp. \$2.50. This is Volume II of the report of the study of the Thirty Progressive Schools this is being published. In this volume of the Report three men tell of their experience in working with the Thirty Schools. As the schools attempted to meet the needs of their pupils more effectively, they faced difficult problems of administration, curriculum revision, and methods of teaching. They asked help with these problems. To provide assistance, these three men and others were chosen to go to the schools as curriculum consultants to help in any way they could. Here is an excellent example of how supervision and aid can be given a school without any apparent dictation or compulsion on the part of the person or persons giving such services. Reading how this was done answers the problems of teacher and school antipathy to outside guidance and direction.

HERRING, HUBERT. *Good Neighbors: Argentina, Brazil, Chile*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1941. 381 pp. \$3.00. The author writes this book not as one who has just discovered Latin America, but as one who for almost twenty years has journeyed constantly in its various nations. He has known the leaders and common men in all twenty nations. For fifteen years he has been the Director of the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, and has contributed many articles on Latin America to leading periodicals and newspapers. He is known for his realism on inter-American affairs. He dissents vigorously from the lyricists who talk of the "spirituality of the Latin" and who, by idealizing the Latin Americans throw the whole picture out of perspective. At the same time, he has been a consistent critic of our own greater-Americans who have given no place to the rights and prides of the Americans of the South. This concise, and remarkably accurate picture of the social, political, and economic conditions in Brazil, Argentina, and Chile especially should be a must for every secondary-school teacher of foreign history to have available for background material in her teaching.

MCDONALD, G. D. *Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. 196 pp. \$2.75. This is an attempt to look objectively at the library's responsibility with respect to educational motion pictures, the place of the films in the community educational pattern, and what libraries are actually doing about it. It contains a penetrating analysis of the possibilities and problems in adult education work; there is a detailed discussion of film forms and the author's observations on successful techniques and procedures are fully outlined. In the discussion of school-film use, close co-ordination in individual schools and in city and county systems is urged. Educational motion pictures "must come into homes, school-rooms, halls, and auditoriums with all the familiarity of a good conversationalist and with the ready availability of a good book. It is in promotion of such an attitude toward

educational film that the library has an opportunity." Here is a book no secondary-school can afford to be without.

MCKIM, M. G. *The Reading of Verbal Material in Ninth-Grade Algebra*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. 133 pp. \$2.10. This study describes and reproduces in their entirety, two tests in reading typical explanatory material and problems in ninth-grade algebra. The interrelations between the scores which 120 first-year algebra pupils made on these tests and their scores on standard reading, mental ability, and algebra tests and final examinations are statistically analyzed. A feature of special interest to principals and mathematics teachers is a discussion of the reading demands made by elementary algebra. The findings are significant in answering these two questions: To what extent does the relative efficiency of the reader vary as he changes from algebraic reading matter to non-algebraic reading matter and from one type of algebraic reading matter to another? and What is the relationship between achievement in reading various types of algebraic and non-algebraic material and achievement in algebra?

Michigan Writers' Project. *Michigan*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. 682 pp. \$3.00. "These guide books are the finest contribution to American patriotism that has been made in a long time," says Lewis Mumford about the American Guide Series. In Paul de Kruif's foreword to this Michigan volume he remarks that the Series is "a notable contribution to the body of knowledge about contemporary America." *Michigan* follows the style of other books in the Series. There is a section on general information which gives details about railroads and bus lines, steamship passenger lines, air lines, highways, motor vehicle laws, hunting and fishing laws, accommodations, climate, and sports. A calendar of annual events follows. Then the general background is thoroughly described, and the principal cities and tours, with full information about where to go, how to get there, and what to see. One of the most fascinating chapters is the one on Marine Lore, which tells the stories and legends that existed among the lakesmen. Many of the chanteys and songs are included in full. The Guide provides both the tourist and the citizen of Michigan with practical information, plus a succinct account of the historical background of the state, and its many-sided development in modern times. The sixty-four pages of gravure illustrations are an added feature. This book as well as the others in this Series will provide excellent source material in the secondary-school library.

NASH, J. B. *Building Morale*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1942. 154 pp. \$1.00. The author has written a stimulating book which will be an inspiration and help to all teachers. He explains morale in simple language and shows how important it is in our daily life and, in turn, how vital to the life of our country. Morale by itself has no significance, but morale for a purpose is the all-important spirit that makes for victories. In a democracy, morale, as the author defines it, is "A religious zeal for the right of people to establish 'self-approved laws' and for the obligation and discipline that gives obedience to these laws." Our pupils today, more than ever before, need to be guided, and this timely contribution will be invaluable to all teachers in this important work.

PRENTISS, A. M. *Civil Air Defense*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1941. 334 pp. \$2.75. This treatise on the protection of the civil population against air attack deals with the immense problem of air defense. The reader becomes aware of the necessity of preparation despite the seemingly fantastic nature of the emergencies for which we prepare. The book does not discuss the ways and means by which the United States

might be invaded from the air by foreign powers or even consider the probability of such invasions in the future. It does the more urgent thing, that is, it recognizes the danger of air attack and points out the necessity of being ready to meet such an eventuality, much for the same reason that we recognize the ever-present possibility of fire and take precautions to guard against its occurrence and to limit its damage. It points out the probable future capabilities and limitations of air power and informs the reader of the best ways and means of countering this threat. The book critically examines and analyzes the powers and limitations of modern air power and discusses the various defensive measures that should be taken to cope with the danger, to the end that our country, and particularly our civil population, may be prepared to meet this perilous situation should it ever arise. It brings to the public notice a problem of outstanding importance to every country in the world today. The methods of protection against air attack described in this volume are based upon the best modern practice in Europe.

REAVIS, W. C., AND JUDD, C. H. *The Teacher and Educational Administration*.

Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942. 604 pp. \$3.00. In the writing of the book, the needs of readers of four types have been constantly kept in mind: (1) students in teacher-training institutions who have had no experience in classroom teaching; (2) teachers in service whose training for administrative or non-instructional duties has been neglected and who now realize the importance of a thorough knowledge of the place of the teacher in educational administration; (3) persons preparing for administrative positions in village, town, and city school systems; and (4) administrators who desire to consider with their teachers the numerous responsibilities and interests of those teachers in the administrative aspects of education. This book is an outgrowth of twenty years of experimental efforts to develop fundamental course material dealing with the administrative responsibilities and relations of teachers to teachers. The book is divided into three parts: administrative responsibilities of the teacher, administrative relations of the teacher, and administrative problems of vital concern to the teacher. Here is a book from which teachers, and principals as well, will receive much help. Faculty discussions might well be given to reading, studying, and discussing this book. After a careful reading of this book, teachers will better appreciate their part in the administrative set-up of the school. Likewise, principals will have a fuller knowledge of what the teacher can contribute to the more effective operation of his school when all work in understanding co-operation.

REEVES, F. W. *Education for Today and Tomorrow*. The 1942 Inglis Lecture.

Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1942. 65 pp. \$1.00. A discussion of some of the changes in content and emphasis which need to be made in the present curriculum of American secondary schools in the light of war conditions and the problems of post-war reconstruction.

REGLI, ADOLPH. *The Mayos: Pioneers in Medicine*. New York: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th St., 1942. \$2.50. The story of the Mayos—Dr. William, the father, and of his sons, Dr. Will and Dr. Charlie—runs from the Wild West Indian stage to the solemnity of the operating room; from the excitement of tornadoes and racing special trains, to the humanitarian deeds of two great surgeons who loved their fellow men, and to the story of the Mayo Clinic at Rochester, Minnesota, world-famous today as a medical miracle—the "Clinic of the Cornfields." When the father of the Mayo brothers set up as a country physician in Minnesota, back in 1858, the doctoring business was in such a low state that he had to accept a sick cow as his first patient. After he cured that sick cow, the settlers of that

old Indian frontier decided they might take a chance on him, too. And so it was that medical Englishman, who had failed in America as a prospector, river flat-boat captain, surveyor, and farmer, went back to dispensing pills and wielding the scalpel. Dr. Mayo's two sons were gifted, conscientious, idealistic, and hard-working. Dr. Will, the elder, became an adroit businessman-surgeon. Between them they constituted one of medical science's greatest teams, cutting away false practices, adventuring in little-known fields, experimenting fearlessly when precedents were lacking. Before the Mayo brothers had been in practice ten years, they "were making too much money," they decided. What to do with it? They used their money to endow with \$2,800,000 the Mayo Foundation, to combat human suffering. Their money came from the people: they believed it had to go back to them.

SNYDER, L. L., EDITOR. *Handbook of Civilian Protection*. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1942. 184 pp. \$1.25. In this convenient pocket-size book you will find concise, practical, and expert information on what you should do to protect yourself and your family in the event of enemy air attack and what you can do to contribute to the safety of your community and to the efficiency of our National war effort. In his foreword, Colonel Prentiss writes: "In this critical period, the far-reaching importance of civilian defense cannot be over-estimated, and the publication of this excellent handbook will make available to every man, woman, and child a more concise and comprehensive manual than any yet published. Nowhere have I seen a more compact and lucid treatment of this complex problem, nor a more simple and practical set of rules for dealing with its many aspects." It contains the essential, basic information that every citizen, air-raid warden or not, should have.

VAN BODEGRAVEN, PAUL, and WILSON, H. R. *The School Music Conductor*. Chicago: Hall and McCreary Co., 1942. 168 pp. \$2.00. In the secondary-school choral and instrumental music the successful director is first an organizer, then a teacher, and finally a conductor. The authors have drawn from their wide experience in these three fields. They tell of practical down-to-earth procedures that work. Pointers on score reading; how to build a good up-and-coming musical organization; successful rehearsal plans; how to present well-balanced programs; what one must know about competition-festivals; suggestions for creating, stimulating, and holding pupil interest; and many of the other activities and duties of the conductor are discussed in detail. Whether this book is used as a text in a teacher-training class or as a guide to the individual, every user will gain from it a real knowledge of what makes for conducting success in school music.

The book is aimed specifically at the problems most frequently encountered by the conductor of secondary-school choral and instrumental organizations but the fundamental procedures are applicable to all levels of instruction. Most of the music work in the upper levels of our public schools culminates in group participation, the final success of which may be determined by the conductor. This is true only when the groundwork preceding such ensemble performance has been covered thoroughly. Therefore, the conductor must be concerned with the organization of the entire music department and with the kind of teaching which the individuals in his ensemble have received previously. This book will be valuable to the conductor in helping him with this work.

BOOKS FOR PUPIL USE:

ARPS, L. W. *Speaking of Books*. Denver, Colo.: The School District Number One, 1941. 147 pp. \$1.25. This is a book on the use and enjoyment of books and libraries, for secondary-school pupils and teachers. While it was written with the Denver schools in mind, it contains much that is of general application. Considerable success has been had in using it in classes in general education. It is an excellent guide to the pupil in becoming familiar with the library and the books it contains.

AYLING, KEITH. *RAF, The Story of A British Fighter Pilot*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1941. 332 pp. \$2.50. RAF takes you up in a Spitfire for a front-row seat at the Battle of Britain, from Dunkirk to today. Here are the moments of breathless combat, the instants of triumph and disaster, all the intensely compressed drama of fighting five miles above the earth and at seven miles a minute. Here, too, is the tremendous story of the days when the German air juggernaut was turned back, and invasion forestalled. For sheer action and excitement, this is irresistible reading, but the picture of the whole sweep of the RAF organization, of its methods, plans, and strategies, is one which readers will find even more engrossing.

BACON, F. L. *The War and America*. New York: Macmillan and Co., 1942. 125 pp. 60c. Here is an excellent discussion of this important topic. The author begins with a review of those affairs which are directly related to our present World War. In the second chapter the author in his typical, easy, and interesting writing style, portrays without emotion but with certainty of conviction the stirring events of Hitler's Anschuss and following movements. Chapter three dramatically tells the story following the beginning of the great blitzkrieg on May 10, 1940. Chapter four describes the Balkan situation. The last chapter, more than a third of the book, presents in a remarkable interesting manner, America's entry in the war. All of the implications leading up to the attack at Pearl Harbor are traced concisely and vividly, thus giving to the pupil an excellent and effective survey of past events that are continuing to have effect upon our present efforts. In conclusion, the book not only gives to the pupil a scholarly interpretation of the movement of world events by a master story teller, but also an up-to-the-minute report of progress. Without being dramatic, the author points a way to the realization of the hope for a lasting peace. He makes the pupil see the difficult task that is ahead when he states: "The capacity of mankind to reason intelligently and the wisest leadership of the most capable men will never have been put to so great a test as in the effort to fashion a peace which will improve the relationships of the world's peoples and establish a means of preventing war."

BALDWIN, H. W. *What the Citizen Should Know About the Navy*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1941. 219 pp. \$2.00. Here is a book that describes what the Navy is and defines the different types of ships—from battleships to the new motor torpedo boats, including the fighting planes, that comprise it. It is a book that tells what those "hashmarks" mean, initiates the reader into the mysteries of the insignia on a bluejacket's sleeve; it tells about officers and their ranks. The elements of sea power and how the fleet is used; the function of naval bases; the kind of life aboard naval vessels and the careers offered; the system of communications the Navy uses—all these things are in this book with appropriate illustrations. For those who do not understand the language of the sea, a glossary of nautical and naval terms is included.

BAYLES, E. E., and BURNETT, R. W. *Biology for Better Living*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1941. 754 pp. \$2.28. The authors have written an interesting, vivid, and easily mastered textbook. They have written a textbook which, through a logical, common sense approach, leads the pupil to an intelligent understanding, based on biologic facts, significant problems which he will have to solve, can solve, and will solve through the method of science.

BENET, S. V. *John Brown's Body*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1941. 432 pp. \$1.32. A chronicle of the Civil War in poetry form. The author completely familiar with the various sections of the locale of this story has given to the poem beauty, originality, and diversity. The epic itself is rich in action and suspense, with characters expressive of many moods and drawn from various sections and walks of life. The episodes are divided one from another by lyrics and musical interludes planned to prepare the reader's mind for each new scene and contrasting character. The book also contains notes, a list of questions and answers, a list of topics for research and investigation, and a list of references for further reading, thus making it very adaptable for use in the secondary school.

BLAICH, T. P. et al. *The Challenge of Democracy*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. 591 pp. \$2.20. A course in citizenship on the senior high school level based somewhat on the following objectives: To develop a knowledge of our present democracy, to promote an understanding of democratic ideas as applied to present-day problems, and to encourage an attitude of personal responsibility for the support and maintenance of the ideals and appropriate institutions of democracy. The course is organized on the unit basis (thirteen units, 35 chapters) starting with the individual and moving into wider and future circles. Each chapter has two or more pages of study guides and suggestions, together with a well-selected list of reference books for pupil use.

BOULMAN, H. W., and E. McC. *Our Economic Problems*. New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1942. 588 pp. \$2.00. This book designed for secondary-school use, is the result of a decade of experimentation in secondary-school classes by the authors to find a presentation that will make this difficult but important subject more significant to the average student. A new organization, simple introductory questions relating the subject matter to the pupil's experience, group and individual activities, helpful reading lists, over 250 carefully selected illustrations, including a large number of charts and diagrams, all combine in this book to provide a successful solution to the problem of making the study of economics lively and meaningful to the secondary-school student. Since all of the important problems of our economic life grow out of the purchase and sale of goods and services, and since buying and selling are concepts that are readily understood by the student, this book is organized into units dealing with the conditions surrounding the buying and selling of commodities, investments, credits, insurance, public utility services, and the services of labor. This organization differs from the traditional. It permits treatment of all the familiar topics—production, consumption, exchange, value, and distribution—in relationships meaningful to the student. Some of the special features of the book are functional organization centered around the buying and selling of goods and services, units based on significant areas of experience that the student can understand, emphasis on the part played by the government in dealing with each economic problem, critical appraisal of our economic system, with some consideration of other systems, and an extended list of varied and thought-provoking activities for each chapter.

BOWMAN, E. L. *Jobs in the Machine Shop*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1942. 48 pp. 50c. The War Production Board is trying to put to use every machine tool in America. Surprisingly few young men and women, however, know about the work done in machine shops, and understand what it takes to make good in this essential industry. More trained machine-shop workers are needed. The monograph presents information about this vital job field upon which a youth may base his choice of work. After a general survey of the place of the machine shop in our democracy and its part in industry today, the kinds of work, the wages and hours, and how a job is secured are interestingly discussed.

BRAUN, I. H., AND SAFARJIAN, D. E. *Stories of Many Nations*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1942. 605 pp. \$2.00. An excellent comprehensive anthology of the best national short stories of the world for secondary-school use. The book contains 64 complete stories from 23 countries selected on the basis of the interest and comprehension level of the secondary-school pupil. The stories are grouped by countries, with a short introduction to each group in the form of an exposition of that country's literature. Every story is preceded by a brief biographical sketch of its author, or, in the case of legendary tales, by a concise statement about the kind of legends or folk tales popular in that country. There are unfamiliar as well as famous names among the authors. The stories themselves possess the widest possible variety of mood, action, and point of view. These stories should stimulate the reading interest of a pupil at the outset and maintains it by the sparkling freshness and vigor of the tales presented.

BRONSON, W. S. *Horns and Antlers*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1942. 143 pp. \$2.00. This is the story of North American deer and antelopes—whitetails found in all parts of our country, mule deer in the West, moose in Canada, mountain goats in the Rockies, and others. The habits of the various members of the deer family of this continent and their differences are described in the same lively and engaging style which distinguishes *The Wonder World of Ants* and other books by Mr. Bronson. The book is superbly illustrated with four plates in full color and 46 drawings in black and white by the author. The book is so interestingly written that despite the fact that its reading level is about that of the junior high school pupil, pupils in the senior high school will want to read it.

BUCK, PEARL S. *Today and Forever*. New York: The John Day Co., 1941. 327 pp. \$2.50. This new book contains a selection of the stories about Chinese people. As chosen and arranged, they form a definite pattern. We begin with a tale or two of the older China and see its gradual change, its contact with missionaries, the pressing in of western ideas, the coming home of young Chinese born and bred in America. The longest story depicts that figure of true melodrama, the traditional bandit warlord, and the dawn in him of a stout patriotism when the Japanese invade the land. The final stories deal with the war as waged not by the military but by a whole people, by guerrilla tactics and by the making of the famous Burma road.

BURROWS, RAYMOND, AND AHEARN, E. M. *The Young Explorer at the Piano*. Cincinnati: The Willis Music Company, 1941. 46 pp. 60c. A song approach which these lessons combine provides a natural, joyous, musical experience for the pupil with a systematic program for the development of reading. It, together with the other books in the series, is designed to provide materials for the teacher who wishes to bridge the gap from rote to note while constantly emphasizing the primary importance of the pupil's happy and meaningful participation. While written on an elementary level, it is applicable for use of the beginning piano pupil in the junior and even the senior high-school levels.

CHODOROV, JEROME, AND FIELDS, JOSEPH. *Junior Miss*. New York: Random House, 1942. 209 pp. \$2.00. With her *Junior Miss* stories, Sally Benson came into her own as one of the wittiest and most brilliant writers in America. The stories appeared first in the *New Yorker*. Then, gathered into book form by Random House, they were chosen for distribution by the Book-of-the-Month Club. And now Chodorov and Fields, who made such an excellent play out of *My Sister Eileen*, have surpassed themselves in translating *Junior Miss* into stage form and have turned out one of the funniest and most heart-warming hits that New York has seldom seen.

COOK, G. C. *380 Things to Make for Farm and Home*. Danville, Ill.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1941. 329 pp. \$2.50. The purpose of this book is to furnish a comprehensive list of plans of shop projects and jobs needed on the farm and in the home. The primary aim has been to select a practical list of plans and ideas which have been tested and proved successful for use by farmers, teachers of vocational agriculture, teachers of general shop, secondary-school students, and others interested in shop activities. Teachers of farm mechanics and of general shop are interested in learning of interesting as well as instructive projects for their pupils. Herein is a variety of plans and ideas which have been successfully used. From it any teacher may secure assistance for his shop program.

COOK, L. B., et al. *Challenge to Understand*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942. 798 pp. This book, the third in the series, is intended for the ninth grade. It is organized into ten reading units grouped in four areas of living, each presenting a different kind of adjustment involved in the process of growth: (1) making the most of oneself; (2) adapting the self to others; (3) accepting responsibility; and (4) gaining a perspective. Each of these four areas is set off by a group of pictures illustrating the kind of development fostered by the selections. Each challenge is a separate, independent unit, complete in itself. The selections in the text have been chosen so as to fall within ninth-grade reading interests and abilities.

COOPER, A. C., AND PALMER, C. A. *Twenty Modern Americans*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942. 404 pp. \$1.32. A book of biographies specially written for secondary-school pupils in the ninth and tenth grades, by a classroom teacher and a young author. To achieve its purpose, the volume has been given a cumulative arrangement. Opening with colorful stories of easy appeal and early interests, it is built up gradually to the more complex and thought-provoking material. This arrangement progresses from the natural curiosity of younger readers about pictures and animals to their widening concern with sports, travel, nature, books, government institutions, and social service. The suggestions for study and the reading lists which accompany each chapter should lead pleasantly to further study of books by or about these modern Americans, and should blaze trails for reading in fields of related interests.

COTTLER, JOSEPH. *Man With Wings*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1942. 257 pp. \$2.50. The life of Leonardo da Vinci was a full one: inventor, engineer, architect, artillery expert, anatomist—he was, almost as a side issue, one of the world's very great painters. Here is an exciting, dynamic biography not only for younger readers, but for adults who want a simple and direct picture of a man whose laboratory was the world around him.

COUSINS, NORMAN, EDITOR. *A Treasury of Democracy*. New York: Coward McCann, 1942. 306 pp. \$3.00. This book is divided into two parts, the first historical, the second contemporary. The first is called "The Aphorisms of Democracy;" the second, "The Living Affirmations of Democracy." "The Aphorisms of Democracy" is a valuable storehouse of the ideas that have set men free back through history—writings and sayings by leaders in

the crusade for justice and for government founded on common consent. Part II represents the joint contributions of seventy-five contemporary writers and public figures on democracy today. Many of them have contributed credos as their conception of democracy especially for this book. The others have made their own selections from their previous writings. This section of the book is in no sense an anthology. It is a collaborate effort on the part of 75 men to state briefly their position on democracy in crisis, as a permanent and joint record. The book is quite adaptable for use in social studies, English, and Problems of Democracy classes.

COUSINS, NORMAN. *The Good Inheritance*. New York: Coward McCann, 1942. 318 pp. \$3.00. This is a story of one of the most striking parallels in all history: the struggle for survival of democracy and civilization today, and the life-and-death struggle of Athens, which fought the first war to save the world for democracy. It also contains a reading list by the Council for Democracy.

DALE, EDGAR. *How to Read a Newspaper*. New York: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1941. 192 pp. \$1.40. As reported in the Preface, five years ago Dr. Dale began his preparation for writing this book by asking secondary-school students what they wanted to know about newspapers. From them he collected and classified over 5000 questions which he used as a guide in writing his book. The next step in his realistic approach to the problem of training better newspaper readers was to have an experimental edition tried out in 16 secondary schools scattered from Connecticut to California. The book was then rewritten in the light of findings of this test. As a result of this thorough groundwork, the book is exceptionally clear in its organization, and as readable and interesting as a well-written novel. It tells a vivid story of the making of a newspaper—what goes on behind the scenes—and answers many questions for the curious layman but its unique contribution is the help it offers the reader in improving his reading techniques, in thinking straight about what he reads, in building his own standards for judging newspapers, and in applying them.

DAVIS, N. S. *Applied Mathematics for Girls*. Milwaukee, Wis.: Bruce Publishing Co., 1940. 274 pp. \$1.40. Quick thinking with numbers and having a sort of mathematical sense are qualities looked for by employers in the business world. The author drawing largely upon his teaching experience, upon interviews, and upon teacher inquiries has developed a book to meet these demands. The material has been arranged with a gradual increase of difficulty. Each new topic is introduced by its objective followed by its solution, step by step. As a result of this organization the content is readily adaptable to the individual needs of the pupils in any class of girls in the secondary schools.

DAY, C. W., and RITCHIE, MARGARET. *Studies and Activities in Biology*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1942. 217 pp. 80c. The authors of this study and laboratory guide believe biology should be taught as a science. While they approach many topics by way of application and illustrate biological laws with useful and interesting facts, their primary purpose is clear from even a casual examination—to teach the science of biology. The emphasis here is to get the biology class away from a checking of facts to a discussion of ideas and principles and their application in the world in which the student lives. Application questions and tests, which are easily corrected, give a fair sampling of the work covered. Individual differences in ability and local school conditions are provided for by the inclusion of a variety and choice of material. Optional, or honor work, material makes possible an intensive study of any topics. Mention

should be made of a few of the many excellent mechanical features: The unit page layout allows pages to be removed from the perforated book without disturbing adjacent problems; illustrations are clear and well drawn; and there is ample room for pupils' answers and drawings.

DE ROHN, PIERRE, EDITOR. *Federal Theatre Plays*. New York: Random House, 1938. 80 pp. \$2.00. Random House, official publisher for the Federal Theatre Project, presents herewith three outstanding successes of the 1938 season—an impressive volume that provides more telling testimony on behalf of the whole idea behind the Project than could be conveyed by a ton of propaganda. The name of the plays are: Prologue to Glory, One-Third of a Nation, and Haiti.

DONNELLY, G. M. *Alcohol and the Habit Forming Drugs*. Raleigh, N. C.: Alfred Williams and Co., 1936. 218 pp. \$0.80. This little volume is an honest and unbiased story based on certain facts concerning the action of alcohol, the alcoholic beverages, and certain drugs which may be classed as habit-forming substances such as the narcotics. No attempt has been made to conduct a crusade against the use of the alcoholic beverages. It falls, however, within both the scope and object of this volume to point out their deleterious influence, the ease with which a habit may be developed for them and their well nigh lack of value as remedial agents. The author has accomplished this object in a clear, easily understandable and fair fashion. In addition to having attained this major objective, he has outlined in a most attractive manner the way in which alcohol is produced and has shown the influence of this substance on human beings as individuals and collectively through them on society. At the same time, he has indicated the enormous value of alcohol to various industries and in this way the significant part it assumes economically.

DUNWOODY INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE. *Lathe Job Training Units*. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1942. 143 pp. \$1.35. This Lathe Book is one of a series of six manuals for training on different machine tools—lathe, drill press, milling machine, grinder, shaper and planer, and bench work. The plan of training and the training material have been developed, tested, and improved continuously for many years. By special arrangement they have also been tried out with trainees both in the regular and in the pre-employment and supplementary defense courses of other industrial and trade schools. An *Instructor's Guide* in the use of these manuals has been prepared by the Dunwoody Staff, which covers in more detail the suggestions given in this *Lathe Manual* regarding its use. This lathe book covers jobs on the engine lathe, the turret lathe, and the hand screw machines. In addition, it includes common methods of laying out work for center drilling and for grinding lathe tools.

EMERY, JULIA. *Background of World Affairs*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1942. 324 pp. \$1.72. This book provides a background picture of world events that will help pupils to understand the present period of crisis. Its great timeliness in meeting the needs of the hour should form a sound basis for the increasing number of courses in international relations, world affairs, or current problems. The first unit in the book deals with sources and uses of information. Then the author delves into the roots of the present world situation, tracing concisely and vividly the development of modern nationalism, balance of power, imperialism, conflicting systems and ideas. The material and procedures presented here are products of classroom development and revision. The book is written with conscientiousness as to truth and there is no warping of facts to fit a theory. It is admirably objective, never selective to prove a point but selective only in order to give weight to matters

of present international significance, such as the Versailles Treaty, which is given a rather extensive treatment.

FALK, R. D. *Your High School Record—Does it Count?* Pierre: South Dakota Press, 1941. 100 pp. An excellent book for pupil use showing some of the techniques used by business and industry in "weeding out their applicants for position and rating," as their employees. When a pupil has studied this and filled out these forms (actual forms used by companies) he will have a very good idea of how to fill out forms, and more particularly what are some of the personality and scholastic characteristics to which these companies give attention.

FELKER, C. A. *Shop Mathematics*. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Bruce Publishing Co., 1941. 380 pp. \$2.20. The material in this book has been assembled for use in vocational schools and vocational departments of general high schools. An effort has been made to treat the material so that it can be understood by the average high-school student, and at the same time the requirements of industry have been held in mind. Throughout the book, shop mathematics is correlated with shop practice by means of practice material, questions on shop practice, and descriptive matter. Much of the material has been assembled during the author's experience teaching mathematics in high school and in apprentice work. Care has been exercised to make the transitions easy and the sequence of topics according to accepted teaching practice.

Ford, H. S. *What the Citizen Should Know About the Army*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1941. 230 pp. \$2.50. This is the layman's book about the Army. In it he will learn about the organization of the Army, the duties of enlisted man and officer, about the various so-called arms and services, the function of the General Staff, and how modern war is conducted. The book answers such questions as: What is the new triangular division? Of what do the new mechanized units consist? What is the role of the cavalry in modern war? Should the air corps operate as one of the arms or as a separate department? In addition to all this factual material, illustrated with appropriate drawings, this book undertakes to furnish what most other books on the Army have neglected; namely, some historical background so that the reader follows the evolutionary process of the Army's development and arrives at a theoretical as well as practical knowledge of what the United States Army is today. Of particular value is the stress laid by the author throughout on the relationship between the citizen and the Army, a relationship which has now taken a specific form in the Selective Service Act, which is printed in full as an appendix.

FORESTER, C. S. *The Captain from Connecticut*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1942. 344 pp. \$2.50. Captain Josiah Peabody of the frigate Delaware is, in his lean Yankee way, as attractive and memorable a character as Captain Horatio Hornblower. His adventures during the War of 1812 form a superb story. Captain Peabody is a fictional character. Yet it was men like him who compensated for the tragic lack of warships, and, for a brief time, had the world resounding with the feats of our small navy.

GOODFELLOW, R. C., AND AGNEW, P. L. *Crank-Driven Calculator Course*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Southwestern Publishing Co., 1941. 124 pp. 60c. This follows in somewhat similar form the procedure of instruction used in the *Key-Driven Calculator Course* as described below. The method is largely different, resulting from the difference in operating the two machines.

GOODFELLOW, R. C. AND AGNEW, P. L. *Key-Driven Calculator Course*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Southwestern Publishing Co.; 1942. 163 pp. 75c. This workbook has been written with the thought of providing material that is arranged in proper sequence and that includes the types of work that are usually re-

quired in business situations. All materials are equally applicable to the Burroughs Calculator and the Comptometer. A two-finger-touch method is introduced in the first job and is carefully developed in subsequent jobs. All fundamental processes are introduced in their simplest form within the first ten jobs and are more completely developed during the next ten jobs. The book is planned so that it is as self-instructional as possible. Instructional steps are briefly re-stated when it seems advisable to do so. Actual business forms and procedures are constantly used as a basis for the many important applications that are introduced, and a well-planned testing program is provided.

HUNT, E. M. *America Organizes to Win the War*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942. 426 pp. 90c. Every secondary-school pupil should understand the backgrounds of the war and the contributions various groups—both military and civilian can make toward its successful conclusion. It is well adapted to fit into an already crowded curriculum. A month or six weeks in junior or senior social studies, or perhaps in English would be found quite beneficial. On the basis of present-day needs of the present emergency it may be that the ideas contained in this book are more important now for juniors and seniors than those found in some of the present units used in many secondary schools. Such topics as how the Navy, Army, and Air Force are organized to fight the war, how young people can help, and foundations of the peace are discussed in an interesting as well as informative manner.

KEOHANE, M. P. *Government in Business*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1942. 37 pp. 60c. The Committee on Experimental Units of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, through more than five years of exploration of possibilities, has sponsored study, research, sampling of opinions of teachers, and experimental use of materials in mimeographed form. They, with the approval of the Executive Committee of the North Central Association, have set themselves the task of producing several sample units which teachers may use in developing courses that give major attention to the insistent, continuing problems of society. If the samples have merit, and are purchased and used in sufficient quantity, writers and publishers may be expected to continue supplying the need without the direct sponsorship of educational organizations, and the work of the committee will have justified itself completely. Two units were published in 1939, two in 1940 and one in 1941 and this one in 1942. Additional units on timely topics will follow. These units are interestingly written and attractively illustrated for pupil use in the secondary school.

KINSELLA, H. G., *Music and Romance*. Camden, New Jersey. Educational Department RCA Manufacturing Co. 1941. 572 pp. \$2.25. A music appreciation text and reference book for junior and senior high schools, clubs, and individual study. Each of its 48 chapters has generally been rewritten to bring it completely up-to-date. More than a dozen entirely new chapters have been added to place more timely emphasis on the music and music history of the United States and the other countries of the New World, including some facts of music history in America never before presented in a printed publication. Considerable new material concerning the "modern" music of this century will be especially interesting. Many chapters included in the previous edition have been enriched by as much as sixty per cent by inclusion of story and analysis of classic and romantic music unavailable in recorded form ten years ago. It presents a progressive plan of subject matter for schools, music clubs, or individual study in music appreciation, yet each chapter may be used as an independent unit. It covers all phases of music—vocal and instrumental, folk and art,

nationality, form and pattern, classic and ultra-modern—and is beautifully illustrated by musical selections, photographs, and references to recorded selections available. This new edition contains 160 photographs of famous composers, scenes from operas, musical instruments, and the like. Hundreds of actual musical excerpts are included to illustrate the text.

KITSON, H. D., and LINGENFELTER, M. R. *Vocations for Boys*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942. 332 pp. \$2.50. Eight different sections list and describe hundreds of jobs in business, the professions, the arts, military service, commercialized hobbies, and unusual occupations. A special chapter deals with occupations for the handicapped. Each description includes qualifications for the job (personality, education, training), a realistic discussion of labor conditions and wage scales, and a sensible appraisal of the opportunities for advancement. Emphasis is laid on the importance of skilled craftsmen in modern economic life. Full reading lists which include biography and fiction as well as technical books on each occupation are an important addition. The index makes the book a compact, easy-to-use one-volume library of vocational information.

MEADER, S. W. *Blueberry Mountain*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1941. 309 pp. \$2.00. Buck Evans and his friend, Joe Sullivan, were farm boys living in the Pocono Mountains of Pennsylvania. Every summer they earned money by picking and selling the blueberries growing wild on the Pocono barrens. Then they discovered that bigger ones were grown commercially and sold at far higher prices, and they determined to have their own blueberry farm. Their venture brought them hard work and plenty of obstacles, including thieving mountaineers, a roaring spring flood, and an attempted murder. They had fun, too, and the best of it came from the success of their self-reliant efforts to earn a living.

MEADER, S. W. *T-Model Tommy*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1941. \$2.00. Here is a story set in the world of today, where the most intense interest of every boy approaching manhood is the problem of how he is going to earn his living. Red-headed Tom Ballard started off with no capital except his ancient T-Model Ford truck and built up a thriving trucking business by his own efforts. Among the difficulties he had to overcome were the hazards confronting the truck-driver, perils of stormy weather, and the danger of attack from hi-jackers. Tom found himself involved in adventures that took all his courage to surmount. But the battle he waged to get his business started and to keep it going will interest boys as much, and will give them a great deal to think about.

MORGAN, V. E. *Vocations in Short Stories*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. 47 pp. 50c. The secondary-school pupil, bent on acquiring information on various professions, will find short stories which give information on vocations a valuable aid in exploring vocational fields. The short story is easily and quickly read, and enjoyed by secondary-school pupils. In the very nature of its form, it leaves a clear-cut impression on their memories. It was with this in mind that the index was undertaken to present to the secondary-school pupil those short stories that have some vocational significance. A list of American short stories, the job itself, the ethics of the profession, and the training for the position have been included. The short annotation under each entry is aimed to present the point of view represented in that story. In a very few cases, a story has been listed under more than one heading, if the material contained seemed to justify it. Full entry is given under each heading and the annotation gives the story's vocational significance for that heading.

NALL, T. O., and DAVIS, B. H. *Jobs for Today's Youth*. New York: Association Press, 1941. 168 pp. \$1.75. In these pages you will visit with scores of youth who are serving the people by putting roofs over their heads, by feeding and clothing them, by driving their trucks and cars, by keeping lines of communication open, by serving their government, by taking care of their health, by entertaining them. It's a practical guide to the work world. Vocational opportunities in each of nine broad occupational fields are examined in the light of democracy's needs, the rewards and satisfactions they provide, the preparation that is necessary. And in each the authors point up the frontiers calling for genuine pioneering, whether it be in housing for the ill-housed third or in better movies for all.

NEEDHAM, J. G. *About Ourselves*. Lancaster, Pa.: The Jaques Cattell Press, 1941. 269 pp. \$3.00. The dominant theme of this book is microbes against man. It is a sane, timely, original, and entertaining account of the physical and social science of life written so that all may understand. The book is a study of human nature from the zoological viewpoint. The author shows us the real meaning of our zoological heritaz and offers a new and original classification of the components of social behavior and of the instincts that serve the needs of our mind. He gives us a clear understanding of the ultimate concern of biology—that part of human life wherein emotions mix with rationality, contributing when the mixture is good, to our welfare and happiness; when bad, to our confusion and disillusionment. The book presents in untechnical language important basic facts which must be taken into account to really understand ourselves individually and collectively.

NEEDHAM, J. G. *Introducing Insects*. Lancaster, Pa.: The Jaques Cattell Press, 1940. 129 pp. \$1.50. This book is intended for people who want a little information about common insects, presented in a language that anyone can understand. Here is the information that most concerns an ordinary citizen, with all the technicalities left out. The insects are called by their common names. With the aid of good pictures, something is told of what they are like and where they are found and what they do in the world. The way to control the pests among them is told in simple and practical terms, with stress upon the necessity of knowing their life history and habits. The vulnerable points in the life history are discovered in the search for such knowledge. Then some aid is offered the beginner who wishes to know insects better and to enjoy something more of their beauty and infinite variety by doing a little collecting of them. Here is a book that will appeal to almost every boy and girl in high school. It is so interestingly written that it could well become one of the books provided in quantities for classroom use.

NETTLES, C. H., et al. *Physical Science*. New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1942. 464 pp. \$2.24. Traditionally, science courses for the 11th and 12th years in high school have been rather highly specialized in nature. Such courses hold certain values for those pupils who have specialized interests in science or who are preparing for definite vocations or professions requiring such preliminary training. To meet the needs of the large body of students (about 85%) who do not intend to follow such vocations or professions, many schools are now offering a broader, more comprehensive course, with problem materials drawn from all the physical sciences in their relation to ordinary everyday living. Such a course not only provides the values to be obtained from studying any science, but also gives the student a better understanding of his physical environment and an appreciation of the influence of matters scientific and mechanical upon all phases of living. This text is intended for just such a course in general

physical science. Instead of a fragmentary treatment of chemistry or physics, a unified presentation will be found of the closely related physical sciences: astronomy, chemistry, geology, meteorology, physics. The emphasis throughout is upon the application of scientific principles, scientific thinking, and scientific procedures to the world of everyday living. This text is the outgrowth of the experimental teaching of this type of course in the senior high schools of one of our largest cities during the past fifteen years.

OBERDORFER, A. F., and OBENDORFER, M. E. *New American Song Book*. Chicago: Hall and McCreary, 1941. 192 pp. 35c paper, 80c fabrikoid. This song book contains in the first few pages an interesting account of the development of the songs of the Americas. It is one of the most representative collections of such songs that has ever been published and makes an excellent assembly song book as well as an excellent text for the program "American Unity Through Music."

OGDEN, S. R. *How to Grow Food for Your Family*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1942. 130 pp. \$2.00. This is no book hastily put together for the current emergency, but actually the results of ten years' careful gardening and the analysis of the records of the author's gardens through good years and bad. He starts with the choice of a plot and shows how to test the soil and improve its character. He describes common pests and outlines tried measures of combating these pests. Each vegetable is discussed as to the method of growing and food value. Full instructions are given on the cultivation of the garden. The book is concluded with simple instructions on how to can vegetables for year 'round use.

PATTERSON, S. H., and SEMMELMEYER, MADELINE. *Know Your Language*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1941. 302 pp. \$1.40. One of the most important responsibilities of our schools, a responsibility which is sometimes lost sight of, is to teach fundamentals. No fundamental skill which a student may possess is more important to him than the ability to use his own language correctly, skillfully, and easily. This new secondary-school grammar is a practical and authoritative handbook on modern grammatical usage, and an efficient self-testing and remedial program, with adequate carefully prepared practice material. It has been designed specifically to meet the needs of the individual student in a typical class, comprising students with widely varying backgrounds and abilities. It is suited for classroom and home use in any year of the secondary school, in connection with any type of work in English composition. Commercial students will find it useful in preparing themselves for the placement tests so often used by banks and other large businesses. Academic students will find it an effective means of developing the background demanded by college entrance examinations and freshman English courses.

Publications of the Robbins Music Corporation, 799 Seventh Avenue, New York.
FREY, HUGO. *America Sings*. 1935. 143 pp. 25c. An excellent collection of songs for schools, clubs, assemblies, camps, and other recreational groups. Ideal for the community sing.

FREY, HUGO. *Fifty Famous Favorites and Fifty Other Favorites*. 1942. 95 pp. 25c. An excellent group of songs for community sings as well as assembly use.

FREY, HUGO. *Geoffrey O'Hara Harmony Hymns*. 1942. 95 pp. 25c. A collection of hymns arranged in medium keys for the average voice. Full chords in the piano accompaniment are given.

FREY, HUGO. *Songs for America*. 1941. 143 pp. 25c. Another excellent collection of familiar and not so familiar appealing songs for schools.

RICHMOND, W. V. *Making the Most of Your Personality*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942. 247 pp. \$1.75. Behind the title of this book is a wealth of human experience and human knowledge. Every year we know more about what goes into "personality"—what part heredity plays, what part environment plays. We know something about the important differences between persons which make one girl a good dress designer but a bad speller, which make a certain boy good at geometry but bad in English literature. Sex plays an important part in our makeup, both physical and psychological, and here, too, an understanding of ourselves will make our lives much happier. Much of life is learning to get along with people and that depends upon the knowledge of a great variety of human beings, some simple, some complicated, some mentally healthy, some mentally sick, some immature, some grown up. A few of the many questions answered in this book include: How can I find out about myself? Do I have any special abilities or talents, or have I ever tried to find them? How far do my emotions guide my behavior? Why are feelings so strong and seemingly so new and strange in adolescence? What should I know about falling in love and marriage? What work can I do best, and what will I be happiest in? What shall I do about "avocations," or hobbies?

RIKER, T. W. *The Story of Modern Europe*. Boston: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942. 390 pp. \$2.40. The story is told in an interesting manner. Pupils will enjoy reading and discussing Europe's progress during the modern times especially when as an introduction they secure a rapid view of the ancient and middle times. The book is attractively illustrated. The two column arrangement of reading provides an increased interest in that it is different from the usual book studied by the pupil. Each division of the book is introduced with a preview and each chapter is concluded with four aids: summary of important concepts, how carefully do you read, gaining skill, and bibliography.

ROBERTS, H. D., et al. *Airlines to English*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1942. 401 pp. \$1.72. The school and the classroom are feeling this steady impact of the advancing power of speech and are building new programs to vitalize their work in speech and English. To make these programs effective, new tested materials are needed. This book and the program it embodies have been constructed to meet the speech needs of the school in preparing students for life. Many exercises provide for ample growth in natural conversation and the presentation of informal reports. These experiences appeal to the interest of young people in learning the English of daily life through speech and radio. The program has been built out of the authors' conviction that speech is primary and fundamental in learning to use language and that teaching written composition and reading, without speech is standing English on its head. Teachers of English, science, and social studies will find that many parts of the book are adapted to enrich special units of work in their study of communication. Extensive activities and assignments make it possible for teachers and students to select the work to be done in accordance with their individual needs capacities, and interests. The flexible plan of the book allows the teacher to make a variety of rearrangements and to concentrate upon those differences in communicative abilities and capacities of young people.

SCHLICHENMAIER, A. W. *Six Foolish Drivers*. Peoria, Ill.: The Manual Arts Press, 1941. 119 pp. \$1.50. Safety in home, factory, office, and on the street is of vital concern to all of us, especially during war time. This book has been written for the beginning driver and is designed to increase automobile safety. The author, a social science instructor, has felt the need of a book which would bring home to his students the responsibilities of the

driver and the disastrous results which can follow the driver's carelessness or ignorance. His book is the result of a long and serious study of these problems. The six stories are true to the life-and-death emergencies on our highways and are typical of experiences garnered from police files. The stories are interesting and stimulate thought. The style and characters have been carefully tested for their effect upon the age group for whom the book is intended. At the end of each story is a summary of examination of the facts presented. The last chapter is a driver's checklist on the causes of accidents. This book is not a text but is a supplement needed in the instruction of young drivers. It should be in all driver-training classrooms, and in all school libraries whether driving is taught or not.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH, and SMITH, R. R. *Second-Year Algebra*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1942. 184 pp. \$1.68. The latest book in the authors' secondary-school mathematics series is worthy of careful consideration: *first*, because it is a timely book for preparing students for today's technological needs; and *second*, because it carries a method which should go far to minimize the usual learning difficulties. The authors stress in their preface the present day need for "men and women who have mathematical intelligence and have a thorough training in the language of algebra." Their book is written for those students who elect a second course in algebra "primarily because they wish rigorous training for the mathematical sciences."

The skills of first-year algebra are diagnosed by inventory tests. Pages of *Maintaining Skills* allow for a review of plane geometry. Chapter tests and cumulative reviews are provided. There is a large number of practice exercises arranged for students of varying abilities. The treatment of verbal problems emphasizes a general method of problem solving rather than specific methods of solving particular problems. In sympathy with newer trends in secondary mathematics, such as presented in the 15th Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, this text includes special treatment of graphs, supplementary work on the meaning and use of slope, and elementary presentation of the analytic geometry of the straight line. Trigonometry is carried through the laws of sines and cosines. An entire chapter is devoted to rates of change, constituting an unusually clear introduction to the calculus.

STAUDENMAYER, M. S. *Reading and Writing the News*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942. This laboratory workbook is designed as a guide for pupils who are learning to understand the news and write for the school paper. Part One, *Reading the News*, attempts to analyze, from the point of view of the reader, the problems associated with gathering, writing, and interpreting the news. Part Two, *Writing the News*, affords practice in writing for publication. In addition to being a workbook, *Reading and Writing the News* may serve as a basic textbook in newspaper writing. Each lesson presents a single significant problem, devised in easy stages through the imparting of information, appreciation of the material, and exercises in technique. All technical terms are defined. Copy editing and proof-reading symbols as well as a glossary and style sheet are supplied.

WALTERS, R. G., and WINGATE, J. W. *Fundamentals of Selling*. Cincinnati: Southwestern Pub. Co., 1942. 160 pp. \$0.72. This book is a revision of a book that has proved very popular as a basic spelling textbook and as a supplementary textbook. The course provides excellent supplementary spelling assignments for use in such courses as English, transcription, dictation, secretarial practice, and advanced business. It provides for a complete, all-round mastery of words. It is more than just a business speller. The pupil is given training in the use of the dictionary, the syllabication of words,

the capitalization of words, and the pronunciation of words. Diacritical markings are given for most of the words shown in the lists.

WALTERS, R. G., and WINGATE, J. W. *Fundamentals of Selling*. Cincinnati: Southwestern Pub. Co., 1942. 502 pp. \$1.68. This book is recommended for the first course in a complete program of distributive education or for a single, self-contained general course in selling. Since most selling opportunities are in retailing, most of the examples and illustrations in this book are based upon retail situations. However, the authors have given appropriate attention to wholesaling, letter writing, advertising, and selling one's own services. In other words, all types of selling situations are treated. Particular effort has been made to emphasize the general principles of selling that are the basis of all types of selling, including the type of selling that is necessary in a store, in a filling station, in a restaurant, by a farmer in selling produce, by a traveling salesman, by an advertising writer, or by a writer of a sales letter.

WHEELER, BLANCHE, AND McCABDY, M. E. *Manners for Moderns*. New York: Dutton and Co., 1942. 195 pp. \$1.75. This is a unique book in that it has discarded formalism and stilted social intercourse and made of meeting people an occasion to be enjoyed—with no after feelings of "Did I do right?" The use of common sense is an important factor conditioning this book. It is a sane, interesting, as well as instructive presentation of a topic that is of concern to all who want to live graciously. Those old deep-rooted customs, cherished by so many, have not been abandoned. They have been adapted to the new informality. Here is a book which can profitably become a major unit or part of the guidance program of every school.

WHIPPLE, LEON. *How to Understand Current Events*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1941. 241 pp. \$2.50. At a moment in history when the public leans more heavily than ever for information and guidance about current events on all forms of the printed and pictorial world, this book is peculiarly timely and welcome. This volume grows out of the author's long and first-hand experience with guiding others into a skillful interpretation of the news. His aim is threefold: to help the reader to discover and appraise what is important in the news; to use the newspaper, radio and the movies constructively; and to avoid the acceptance of partial views derived from prejudiced and uninformed opinion.

WILLIAMSON, F. C. *Shipbuilding Terms*. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1942. 64 pp. 50c. The purpose of this book is to give the thousands of new employees in shipbuilding yards throughout the country a clear and easy-to-understand definition or explanation of each of the many ship terms, and to acquaint them with ship locations and abbreviations of ship terms. The definitions, locations, and abbreviations apply to tankers, cargo vessels, destroyers, and mine sweepers.

ZIM, H. S. *Mice, Men, and Elephants*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942. 215 pp. This book is interestingly written while it is in simple language, it will have a strong appeal to the adolescent. Its photographs, its drawings, and its excellent paper and readable type make it most attractive. Mammals are the most highly developed animal group on earth. They have the best brains, the best hearts, and the finest methods of producing and caring for their young. This book explains all these and other characteristics of mammals. The importance of this book lies in its approach to the questions—or the unspoken wonder—of all children about themselves: What am I? How do I work? How was I born? Because the author does not isolate the answers to these questions, because he fits them into their place in the total scheme of things, he invests this whole subject with a naturalness and a simplicity truly human and comprehensible.

PAMPHLETS AND WORKBOOKS:

American Dietetic Association. *Dietetics as a Profession*. Chicago: the Association, 185 North Wabash Avenue, 1942. 23 pp. 10c. Opportunities for dietitians have developed rapidly in the last few years. This brochure mentions hospitals, colleges and universities, school and commercial lunchrooms, welfare organizations, and research in which positions may be found for qualified women. The emergency is creating more outlets for students who choose dietetics as their profession.

BEHRENDT, R. F. *Economic Nationalism in Latin America*. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1941. 22 pp. A scholarly and critical analysis of the economic nationalism movement in Latin America, a problem which to a certain extent is common to all nations in Latin America. The effect of international trade and the control and ownership of enterprises in the countries by foreign nations is authoritatively discussed.

BLAISDELL, D. C. *Government Under Pressure*. New York: Public Affairs Committee 1942. 31 pp. 10c. Pressures exerted by farm, business, and labor groups designed to "extract what they consider a 'living wage' from the public" raise important issues when the nation's security is at stake. This pamphlet not only is a good discussion of this problem but also a good guide to an analysis of the merits of such activities.

Board of Education. *Organization and Operation of N. Y. A. Program No. 5 and National Defense Program No. 1*. Pittsburgh: the Board, 1941. 41 pp. A report of the co-operative efforts of the National Youth Administration and the Pittsburgh Public Schools.

BOSWELL, V. R. *Victory Gardens*, Miscellaneous Publication No. 483. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1942. 11 pp. 5c. This publication gives general information for the inexperienced gardener on what to grow, how to prepare and fertilize the soil, and how and when to plant, how to care for the plants, and how to utilize the crop.

BOYD, JESSE, Chairman. *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. 193 pp. \$2.00. This is a valuable list—useful alike to librarians, teachers, parents, and pupils. It has been prepared by experts familiar with the 1500 books listed. This list is issued at a time of national need when every American must feel the call to make the most of all that he has and is. It will be an aid to effective citizenship and to better living.

CHAMBERS, M. M. *Looking Ahead With Youth*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942. 30 pp. 25c. This is a study guide intended especially for members of classes in colleges and secondary schools as well as for discussion groups in the many clubs and civic organizations which have an interest in the future for youth. It follows the organization of the Commission's book, *Youth and the Future*.

Committee on Scouting in the Schools, *Scouting in the Schools*. New York: the Committee, 2 Park Avenue, 1941. 95 pp. 20c. A manual of practical procedures related to scout activity and co-operative relationships. This pocket-size, ninety-five page manual presents a practical approach to school-community relationships which should be helpful to teachers, principals, superintendents, and school boards in their efforts to supplement the school by utilizing all constructive social forces in the community for the growth and development of young Americans. Chapter I reviews the educational principles, objectives, and functions common to scouting and the schools. Chapter II presents a resume of the leadership of scouts in the secondary school and college. The many and varied contacts between the schools and the Boy Scouts of America are re-

viewed in Chapter III. Practical suggestions on school co-operation with organized scouting in the local community are given in Chapter IV. This chapter also tells how to organize a Scout Troop, a Cub Pack, and a Senior Scout Group.

CONNER, DEAN, Chairman, *Learning to Earn*. State College, Pennsylvania. Dr. F. T. Struck, Pennsylvania State College. 1941. 47 pp. This booklet prepared by a committee of the Pennsylvania vocational association is a pictorial survey of the vocational education program in Pennsylvania schools. It is a general view of the opportunities provided for the youth and adults of Pennsylvania. An attractive and informative booklet of interest to laymen as well as schoolmen.

DAY, E. E. *Oncoming Changes in the Organization of American Public Education*. Ithaca, N. Y.: Committee on Teacher Education of the Association of Colleges and Universities, Goldwin Smith Hall, 1942, 10 pp. A critical discussion of some of the problems education of today faces.

Department of Elementary-School Principals. *How to Know and How to Use Your Community*. Washington, D. C.: the Department, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1942. 80 pp. 75c. The material selected for this publication constitutes a series of discussions by specialists and educators experienced and interested in the community approach to curriculum planning. A committee of the Department of Elementary-School Principals which prepared this material has drawn on sociological sources to show how research techniques employed by the sociologist may be utilized by the principal and his faculty to become better acquainted with the community concerned. The descriptive material of outstanding pieces of work being done relating to community life should be of practical value in suggesting techniques and methods of curriculum practices involving use of community resources. While the material pertains to the elementary field, reports from grades 7 and 8 are included. This together with the fact that projects reported for lower grades giving excellent ideas and suggestions for procedures, make it a useful publication for the secondary school as well. The material may be divided into three general classifications: (1) trends and improvements in instruction made possible through the community approach; (2) techniques of social investigation to be utilized by the elementary-school faculty in the study of community life; and (3) successful educational projects involving utilization of community resources.

DUNN, F. W. *Guidance in Rural Schools*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., 1942. 127 pp. 50c. This yearbook brings together in form available to rural educational workers, trends and programs of guidance throughout the United States. It involves a reporting from school people throughout the country and a summary of what these schools are doing. Back of this is given an intelligible picture of influencing conditions so important in the interpretation of any program of action. While much of the content deals with the elementary school, there is much for the secondary school, both as to reports of activities as well as the knowledge of what may be conditioning the pupil before he reaches the secondary school.

ELLIOTT, EUGENE B. *Democracy in Action*. Lansing: the author, Department of Public Instruction, 1941. 38 pp. Descriptions and recommendations covering pupil participation in Michigan secondary schools. It is composed of five chapters: The purpose of Student Participation; Organization for Student Participation; Student Participation in Michigan Schools; Typical Practices of Student Participation; and Sources of Printed

Help. Chapter 3 includes a list of projects in pupil participation in 128 Michigan secondary schools, while Chapter 4 describes nine projects in as many different secondary schools.

ELLIOTT, GODFREY. *The County Committee for Audio-Visual Aids in Education*. Leewood, W. Va.: Visual Education Society of West Virginia, 1942. 5c. Explains how a county-film library can be organized and what one county is doing with audio-visual aids.

ENGELHARDT, N. L. *The School Building Needs of the Sewanhaka High-School District*. Floral Park, N. Y.: The Board of Education 1941. 56 pp. A survey of the school-building needs of the district. Excellent as a means for showing how many factors should be considered if a satisfactory result is to be achieved in the realization of the completed program.

ENGLEMAN, F. E. *Progress Report on Seven Teachers Colleges Participating in the Co-operative Study of Teacher Education*. Washington, D. C.: Commission on Teacher Education, 744 Jackson Place, 1941. 44 pp. 15c. Describes the activities of the Commission since beginning in 1938 its nation-wide co-operative project in experimentation, demonstration, and evaluation with respect to new concepts of education and a creative approach to the problem of teaching.

Essentials of a Reading Program. Reading Bulletin No. 3. Eugene, Oregon. Supt. of Public Instruction. 1941. 66 pp. Describes the essentials of any sound reading program as well as two programs in operation and gives many specific suggestions on both developmental and remedial reading. Covers elementary and secondary school levels.

Forty-First Annual Report of the Executive Secretary, 1941. New York. College Entrance Examination Board. 431 West 117th Street, 1941. 98 pp. 25c. Reviews the extensive activities of the Board.

FOSDICK, R. B. *The Rockefeller Foundation: A Review for 1941*. New York: The Rockefeller Foundation, 1942. 64 pp. Gratis. The annual report of the foundation giving an idea of its extensive program in approximately six major fields: public health, the medical, natural, and social sciences, humanities, and its program in China.

GALLOWAY, G. B. *Post-war Planning in the United States*. New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 330 West 42d Street, 1942. 170 pp. 60c. No less than 100 agencies in the United States, governmental and private, are now carrying on research on post-war social and economic reconstruction. Morale in war calls for clearly-defined objectives; what kind of a peace are we fighting for? Also, to deal effectively with post-war problems requires careful planning in advance. In time of war prepare for peace. This publication lists and describes projects in these fields. It will be of value to agencies in planning and correlating their own programs; to discussion groups, lecturers, and all those interested in studying these problems; and to business leaders and far-sighted individuals who need to shape their own plans for the probable tomorrow.

GLOSS, G. M. *Physical Ability Test (Males)*. New York: New York University Book Store, 18 Washington Place, 1942. Package of ten tests \$1.00; discount for larger orders. A battery of tests to measure speed, skill in handling objects, control of one's body, strength, and "power explosiveness." All of these qualities are necessary to the equipment of a physically effective soldier, sailor, marine, aviator, student, or worker. This test has great possibilities in enabling youths to see how they compare with others and how much improvement may be made by practice in these events or by participation in other physical activities which would tend to better the above qualities. It should be most

satisfactory in regard to economy of time and equipment, objectivity of judgment, ease of recording, and high correlation with other tests.

GRAY, HENRY. *Historical Atlas of Colonial North America from Prehistoric Times to 1823.* Washington, D. C.: Educational Research Bureau, 1321 M St., N.W., 1942. 16 pp. 25c. Colored maps. An excellent supplement for history and geography texts used in the schools.

HEIMERS, LILL. *Pan-American 1942 Visual and Teaching Aids on Latin America.* Upper Montclair, N. J.: New Jersey State Teachers College, 1942. 22 pp. 50c. An annotated list of materials together with prices available for instructional use in a study of Latin American countries.

Historical Publications of the National Park Service, Washington, D. C. Available through the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., at the prices indicated. The National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, has recently issued three interesting series of historical publications. The standard sixteen-page historical booklet, elaborately illustrated with historical photographs, prints, and maps, is now available as follows: *Abraham Lincoln National Historical Park, Kentucky*, (10c); *Antietam National Battlefield Site, Maryland*, (10c); *Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park, Georgia and Tennessee*, (10c); *Colonial National Historical Park, Virginia*, (5c); *Fort Marion and Fort Matanzas National Monuments, Florida*, (10c); *Fort Pulaski National Monument, Georgia*, (10c); *George Washington's Birthplace National Monument, Virginia* (10c); *Gettysburg National Military Park, Pennsylvania*, (5c); *Great Smoky Mountains National Park, North Carolina and Tennessee*, (10c); *Guildford Courthouse National Military Park, North Carolina*, (5c); *Hopewell Village National Historic Site, Pennsylvania*, (10c); *Morristown National Historical Park, New Jersey*, (5c); *Ocmulgee National Monument, Georgia*, (5c); *Salem Maritime National Historic Site, Massachusetts*, (5c); *Shiloh National Military Park, Tennessee*, (5c); *Statue of Liberty National Monument, New York*, (10c); and *Vicksburg National Park, Mississippi*, (10c).

Numbers in the "Popular Study Series," composed of articles of general historical interest, are now available at 10 cents each as follows: No. 1, *Winter Encampments of the Revolution*; No. 2, *Weapons and Equipment of Early American Soldiers*; No. 3, *Wall Paper News of the Sixties*; No. 4, *Prehistoric Cultures in the Southeast* (in press); No. 5, *Mountain Speech in the Great Smokies*; No. 6, *New Echota, Birthplace of the American Indian Press*; No. 7, *Hot Shot Furnaces*; No. 8, *Perry at Put In Bay; Echoes of the War of 1812*; No. 9, *Wharf Building of a Century and More Ago*; No. 10, *Gardens of the Colonists*; No. 11, *Robert E. Lee and Fort Pulaski* (in press); No. 12, *Rifles and Riflemen at the Battle of Kings Mountain*; No. 13, *Rifle Making in the Great Smoky Mountains* (in press); and No. 14, *American Charcoal Making*.

Number 1 in the new "Source Book Series," consisting of original and contemporary historical and archeological source materials introduced by explanatory comments, and compiled in relation to areas under National Park Service jurisdiction, is now available at 15c, and is entitled: *Yorktown—Climax of the Revolution*.

How to Buy Life Insurance. New York, Public Affairs Committee. 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1941. 32 pp. 10c. A pamphlet based on the reports of the staff of the Securities and Exchange Commission and the briefs filed by the insurance companies for the Temporary National Economic Committee, and reports of the Insurance Department of the State of New York. It discusses nine simple ways for persons requiring life insurance.

JAGGERS, R. E., Director. *A Unified Program of Teacher Education and Certification in the Southern States*. Sewanee, Tenn. The University Press. 1941. 66 pp. The report of what has been accomplished by thirteen southern states in the way of securing desirable uniformity for the preparation and exchange of teachers. A project sponsored by the Southern University Conference in co-operation with the Southern Accrediting Association.

JOY, B. D. *4-H Club and Older Youth Studies, 1940-41*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Agriculture, 1941. 30 pp. Includes summaries, findings, bibliography, and study in progress concerning the work of the 4-H Clubs.

KALP, E. S. and MORGAN, R. M. *Defense of the Western Hemisphere*. New York. Ginn & Co. 1941. 66 pp. 60c. Is attack on America probable? Are there foes within the United States? What are we doing to protect ourselves? Here is a concise treatment of one of the most vital problems of today—the imminent problem of defense. *Defense of the Western Hemisphere* gives the secondary-school pupil a clear picture of the defense problem including threats from abroad and from within our country, and methods used to meet these threats. It is organized so that the subject matter is easy to understand, and is written on the secondary-school pupil's level. Brought out under the direction of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, it is one of the most timely books available.

KNEELAND, HILDEGARDE. *Consumer Expenditures in the United States*, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1941. 195 pp. 50c. This report of the National Resources Planning Board presents for the first time statistical data on the spending habits of the nation. It surveys in detail the spending of the 59 billion dollar national consumer income in 1935 and 1936 by the Nation's 39 million consumer units—29 million families and 10 million single men and women. The report answers such questions as: What did the nation as a whole consume in 1935-36? What did the various income groups consume? How much was spent for food by the whole nation and by each income group? For automobiles? For medical care? For clothing? For housing? For gifts, personal taxes, and savings? Statistical information on aggregate expenditures by income level is divided into two general groups. The first considers expenditures for each third of the nation—the lower third with incomes under \$780 per year, the middle third incomes of \$780-\$1,450 per year, and the upper third with annual incomes of \$1,450 or over. The second divides income status into ten classifications.

MARSH, C. S., editor. *Specification for Folding Chairs*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942. 39 pp. 25c. The need for a factual investigation to determine minimum requirements for school furniture and equipment has been recognized for many years. This report presents specifications stating the minimum school requirements for several of the widely used items of equipment, including folding chairs, chair desks, combination movable desks, auditorium chairs, tables and chairs for pupil seating, library equipment, science equipment, and vocational equipment. Because the expenditure for school furniture and equipment in the United States averages nearly fifty million dollars a year and because there is a lack of standards determined on the basis of school needs, these specifications will be of great value to the schools. To the principals who are really concerned with knowing what kind of folding chair he is buying, this pamphlet will be a real aid.

NOURSE, E. G. *Competition as Method and as Goal*. Washington, D. C.: the Brookings Institution 1942. 30 pp. 25c. This is chapter III of a forthcoming book, *Price-Making in a Democracy*, (sixteen chapters) appearing

first in pamphlet form by chapters. This pamphlet deals with the idealized picture of competition, some practical shortcomings of competition, competition and size of the business enterprise, the quality of competition, co-operation and co-ordination, and fruits of competition from other roots.

The Nurse in the School. Washington, D. C. The National Education Association. 1941. 40 pp. 20c. A report intended to clarify some of the relationships between nurses and other members of the school staff and to indicate how the nurse may best contribute to school health objectives. Discussions of relationships and objectives contained in this report are based on a philosophy of school health programs which requires that each member of the school staff shall assume some responsibility for the health supervision and health guidance of pupils. Associated with this is the responsibility of the school principal, or of some person appointed by him, to co-ordinate the health activities of the various members of this staff.

OOG, ELIZABETH, AND SANDBANK, HAROLD. *Homes to Live In.* New York: Public Affairs Committee 1942. 31 pp. 10c. Economical planning of space and equipment in our homes during the stringencies imposed by the war is urged as a means of strengthening morale.

Ohio Teaching Record. Columbus, Ohio. The Ohio State University Press. 1941. 32 pp. 25c. 100 or more 15c each. To be used by observers and supervisors chiefly to record significant anecdotes about the teaching-learning processes observed. One booklet serves for three periods of observation. This record form will be found excellent when used in a co-operative inquiry carried forward by teachers and competent, informed observers, whose purposes are concerned with the improvement of teaching.

PARKER, J. G. Director. *Seeking Better Ways.* Lansing, Michigan. Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum. State Board of Education. 1941. 93 pp. 50c—10% discount on ten or more copies. Descriptions of newer practices in Michigan's secondary schools planned and prepared by teachers for teachers interested in seeking better ways for secondary education to meet its responsibility to youth, community life, and democracy.

Prepare for What? Columbus, Ohio. Ohio State University. 1941. 11 pp. A selected list of recent books, pamphlets, and periodicals on women in vocations, arranged by vocations.

Publications available from the United Air Lines, Municipal Airport, Chicago, Illinois. All of this material known as *The Teacher's Kit* (25 cents for mailing) is most interesting to any boy or girl. Even the *Teacher's Manual* is a book that every boy will enjoy reading. Contained in this *Teacher's Kit* are: *A 52-page Teacher's Manual of Aviation* containing facts and pictures. *24 Printed Pictures*, 9"x12", which includes historic and present-day planes and air travel; *An Airline map of the United States*, 20"x24", and *forty small airline maps*, 9"x12", and *Forty sheets of air mail, air express, and air baggage stickers* together with colorful poster material.

Publications of the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 8 West 40th Street, New York, New York.

The Atlantic Charter. 1941. 8 pp. Single copies free. 100 copies 75c. A comparison of the Eight-Point Declaration of President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill with the Preliminary Report of the Commission. *Comment on the Eight-Point Declaration.* 1941. 20 pp. 5c. 100 copies \$4.50. An analysis of the Atlantic Charter, point by point, with study questions and suggested reading lists. For group and individual use.

Publications of the Research Division of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 25c. per copy.

Teacher Personnel Procedures: Selection and Appointment. Bulletin No. 2.

March 1942. 26 pp. Deals with selection and appointment of new teachers. *High-School Methods with Superior Students*. Bulletin No. 4. September 1941. 44 pp. Summarizes information concerning the mental, physical, social, emotional, and educational characteristics of mentally superior children as a group and discusses briefly the available methods of appraising both general and special abilities.

Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools. Bulletin No. 1. January 1942. 48 pp. This bulletin has been prepared in response to numerous requests for help in meeting reading needs. It gives an overview of reading programs in secondary schools and reports classroom procedures and devices that bear the stamp of successful practice. It should prove helpful to school administrators who are striving to enrich reading programs.

Publications of the University of Oregon, School of Education, Eugene, Oregon, edited by Hugh B. Wood. Teachers, administrators, and college instructors are constantly searching for printed aids in carrying on curriculum improvement. The University of Oregon Curriculum Laboratory two years ago inaugurated a series of Curriculum Bulletins to help fill the need for study-guides, units, bibliographies, pupil evaluation aids, and philosophical materials in social studies, language arts, science, mathematics and other areas of the elementary and secondary-school curriculum. The following is a list of some of the more recent publications in this series. They are available at the indicated price from the University Cooperative Store, Eugene, Oregon.

FINDLEY, ELIZABETH. *Free and Inexpensive Materials*. No. 4 Revised. 20 pp. 25c. An annotated bibliography of bibliographies of sources of pamphlets and other teaching aids obtainable free or at small cost.

WOOD, HUGH B. *Suggestions for a Junior High-School Curriculum*. No. 13. 9 pp. 15c. A study guide for teachers and administrators.

FINDLEY, ELIZABETH. *An Index to Visual and Auditory Aids and Materials*. No. 17. Revised. 40 pp. 35c. An annotated bibliography of bibliographies and sources of audio-visual aids for rent, purchase, or free.

WOOD, HUGH B. *Suggestions for Improving Group Discussion*. No. 20. 4 pp. 10c. Group discussion has come to be one of our most effective methods of developing social intelligence. It requires preparation in advance, participation by all, and positive organization if the outcomes are to be significant. The suggestions can be modified to satisfy specific situations.

WOOD, H. B. *Evaluation of the Whole Child*. No. 21. 14 pp. 20c. A handbook to be used as a guide during discussion group conferences.

WOOD, H. B. *Price Lists of Inexpensive Teaching Materials*. No. 24. 25c plus postage. Contains a number of publishers' lists of materials and their prices. Only actual unit plans, descriptions, and sources are included.

Bibliography for Units in Mexico. No. 30. 25c. An annotated bibliography of books, magazines, magazine articles, pamphlets, music records, films, etc., about Mexico.

Bibliography for Units on Communication. No. 31. 35c. An annotated bibliography similar to No. 30.

Hawaii, Our Beautiful Possession. No. 32. 30c. A unit-plan and description for intermediate grades, including outlines, activities, references.

Insurance: A Unit for Social Mathematics. No. 33. 20c. Deals with social and economic aspects on the secondary-school level, including suggested activities and references.

The Culture and Civilization of the Northern Countries. No. 35. 35c. Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden—combines social studies and language arts into a "social living" unit at the secondary level.

Curriculum Trends and Recommendations for a 12-Year Social Studies Program. No. 36. 38 pp. 35c. A course outline by units with a framework and recommendations for grades 1-12.

Curriculum Trends and Recommendations for a 12-Year Language Arts Program. No. 37. 49 pp. 45c. A course outline by units with a framework and recommendations for grades 1-12.

Curriculum Trends and Recommendations for a 12-Year Science Program. No. 38. 23 pp. 30c. A course outline by units with a framework and recommendations for grades 1-12.

Curriculum Trends and Recommendations for a 12-Year Mathematics Program. No. 39. 29 pp. 30c. A course outline by units with a framework and recommendations for grades 1-12.

Curriculum Trends and Recommendations for a 12-Year Arts and Craft Program. No. 40. 24 pp. 30c. A course outline by units.

BACKUS, H. P. *A Description of Tenth-Grade Social Living.* No. 41. 32 pp. 35c. This bulletin was written for observers, student teachers, and others who might be interested in the philosophy and principles underlying the Social Living course at the University High School. It presents a clear, concise picture of the course and offers suggestions which may be used by others who wish to develop a similar course.

A Framework for American Educational Philosophy. No. 42. 15 pp. 25c. This bulletin represents the effort of over 200 teachers and administrators to outline their philosophy of education within a framework believed to be acceptable to all, but having sufficient flexibility to allow for individual interpretations and applications.

Marco Polo: A Study of Ancient Cultures. No. 44. 50c. Is an integrated source for all grade levels, with suggestions for correlations in subjects.

Romano-Italian Culture and Civilization. No. 53. 50c. A unit plan for the study of world cultures in a tenth-grade Social-Living class.

A Test of Creative Writing Ability. No. 54. 20c. Experimental form of two new measuring devices for secondary-school pupils. A unique approach in self-evaluation.

Evaluating the Effectiveness of Oral English. No. 55. 35c. Experimental form of two new measuring devices for secondary-school pupils. A unique approach in self-evaluation.

Installment Buying. No. A. 40c. A secondary-school social studies unit, includes an overview, suggests activities and references.

Publications of the U. S. Office of Education, available through the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., at the prices indicated.

CARLEY, V. A. *Inter-American Friendship Through the Schools.* 1941. 61 pp. 15c. The report is based upon a research study conducted by the Office of Education for the specific purpose of ascertaining the extent of inter-American studies that are already a part of the school curriculum. Replies of school administrators to the questionnaire form the basic information from which the material in this bulletin was developed.

DEFFENBAUGH, W. S., AND KEESECKER, W. W. *State Boards of Education and Chief State School Officers—Their Status and Legal Powers.* 1941. 103 pp. 15c. This study describes present practices pertaining to such boards and such officers: method of selection, term and tenure of office, powers and duties, and other matters. In order that tendencies may be noted, the study includes data to show practices over a number of years.

GREENLEAF, W. J. *Medicine.* 1941. 24 pp. 10c. This guidance leaflet is one of a series on occupations setting forth what the occupations are; what preliminary education is required; where training is offered; length of

training; student budgets; and selected references. The series is designed for use of secondary-school and college students and classes, and of guidance committees, counselors, teachers, and parents.

HIRSH, JOSEPH. *Food for Thought—The School's Responsibility in Nutrition Education*. 1941. 32 pp. 15c. This number of the series, "Education and National Defense," deals with the problems of nutrition education through the schools. The need for adequate nutrition and balanced diets is a matter of serious national concern in normal times, affecting, as it does, every group in the population. In times of emergency, it is augmented by additional stresses and demands made upon all people. The total effort required of all of us, children and adults alike, in the days ahead, calls for national faith, national unity, and national strength—in the building of which food will play no small part. Some ways in which the schools of the nation can answer this call are described in this pamphlet.

MCGREGOR, A. L. *Living Democracy in Secondary Schools*. 1941. 32 pp. 15c. This pamphlet is one of a group within the series, "Education and National Defense," dealing with experiences in democratic living on various age levels and in various situations. It is written particularly

for secondary schools to indicate specifically how teachers and pupils may promote both in themselves and in others a deeper understanding of our democratic heritage and a more intelligent and devoted practice of true citizenship. It draws extensively upon practice in a number of school systems to cite examples of democratic living. Its use is not restricted to classes in the social studies. The author shows how the entire school organization, the total curriculum, and the activities of every classroom can contribute to the objective so graphically expressed in the title.

School and College Civilian Morale Service—How to Participate. 1941. 28 pp. 10c. Outlines the needs and how these needs may be met. A section is devoted to what the public and private schools, state departments, public libraries, colleges and universities can do in planning community forums.

School Public Relations Broadcasting. April 1941. 56 pp. Free. Contains statements and sample scripts from three leaders in educational radio which suggest how radio has been used effectively for school public relations purposes in their respective cities. Numerous other school systems throughout the United States are using radio successfully in reporting to the public. Other scripts from many of these centers are available on request from the Transcription Exchange of the U. S. Office of Education.

SHAW, W. F., and RAU, R. R. *Selling Home Furnishings*. 1941. 275 pp. 45c. A bulletin prepared for use by those who seek self-improvement as members of a group engaged in the study of home furnishings and how to sell them agreeably, intelligently, and competitively. This bulletin presents opportunity and challenge to those who sell home furnishings. The subject matter has been arranged in the form of units, each of which is intended to be made the basis for a minimum of a two-hour discussion and study. With each unit is a set of stimulating questions and a brief reading list.

Sources of Visual Aids for Instructional Use in Schools. Revised 1941. 89 pp. 15c. Includes sources of distribution of instructional materials, such as maps, charts, and lantern slides; of mechanical equipment, such as cameras and projectors; and general informational sources, such as the American Council on Education, the Educational Screen, and certain Federal and state government offices.

WHITE, LUKE. *Sources of Information on National Defense*. 44 pp. This is a preliminary edition of one of a series of special pamphlets entitled,

"Education and National Defense." It has been prepared as a guide to current materials available from non-government, non-profit agencies relating to the total-defense program. It is the first comprehensive index of its type and should prove helpful not only to school administrators, and supervisors, and teachers, but also to librarians, to civic leaders and organizations, to discussion groups, and to individual citizens.

Food For Thought—The School's Responsibility in Nutrition Education. 15c. *Publications of the U. S. Office of Education.* 1930-41. Revised July 1941. 25 pp. A complete list of all bulletins, pamphlets, leaflets, and bibliographies prepared by the U. S. Office of Education.

Sources of Visual Aids for Instruction Use in Schools. 15c. 1941. 91 pp. A classified list by federal and state government agencies, colleges, libraries, museums, associations, and commercial dealers.

Supervision of Secondary Education as a Function of a State Department of Education. C. A. Jessen and W. T. Spanton. 1941. 44 pp. 10c.

Publications by the U. S. Office of Government Reports. The United States Information Service, a division of the Office of Government Reports, is a service agency for the general public as well as for the Government departments and agencies. It answers questions on any phase of Government activity or directs them into the proper channels. Inquiries may be addressed to the United States Information Service, Room 500, 1405 G Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., or 67 Concourse, RCA Building, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, or the State Directors of the Office of Government Reports in the various States. The following publications are available from the aforementioned address unless otherwise indicated. *Activities of Selective Federal Agencies—1933-1939 Edition*—Historical and current facts and statistics relating to a selected group of Federal agencies. Revised to include 1940 data for certain agencies. 106 pages. Mimeo graphed.

County Reports of Estimated Federal Expenditures—Cumulative totals by agencies of loans and expenditures. March 4, 1933—June 30, 1939. Complete for all counties in each state, or for individual counties. Mimeo graphed.

Digest of the Purposes of Federal Agencies—Summarizes the authority and functions of Federal departments and agencies and their subdivisions. 50 pages. Printed. Pocket size. Revised annually.

The Housing Program of the United States Government—June 1941 Edition—Contains data on the activities of Federal agencies in the fields of Urban and Rural Housing; also those co-operating in Defense Housing; statistical data on Housing, Defense Housing; chronological history of Defense Housing Laws and Appropriations; and a chart on How Defense Housing Is Built. 21 pages. Mimeo graphed.

Informational Handbook—1941 Edition—Containing data and tables, as of June 30, 1941, on subjects of general interest such as the public debt, national wealth and income, employment, interest rates charged by Federal lending agencies, and a section on National Defense Statistics.

Reference List of National Defense Publications—A selection of pertinent bulletins and articles prepared by Federal agencies actively engaged in the National Defense Program. Corrected to July 15, 1941.

United States Government Chart—Shows the principal agencies of the Federal Government, and their subdivisions, under that branch of the Government of which their functions are most representative.

United States Government Manual—An authoritative reference book on the organization and functions of Federal departments and agencies. Includes a section on the National Defense Program. Published three times a year by the United States Information Service. Spring 1942 issue. 698 pages. Printed, and bound in heavy paper. 75c a copy at the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

Report of the President of Columbia University for 1941. New York: Office of the President. 1941. 66 pp. President's report to the trustees and the announcement of the colleges and schools relating to the work of 1942.

SEAY, M. F., and McGLOTHLIN, W. J. *Elementary Education in Two Communities of the Tennessee Valley.* Lexington: Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1942. 182 pp. 50c. Principles as practices in the Wilson Dam School of Sheffield, Alabama and the Gilbertsville School in Marshall County, Kentucky are discussed. Many of the projects engaged in by these elementary pupils are equally adaptable to the secondary-school level.

SEIDEMANN, H. P. *Curtailment of Non-Defense Expenditures.* Washington, D. C. The Brookings Institution. 1941. 54 pp. 25c. Covers all non-defense government expenditures including recommendation on federal aid to education, health, the NYA, W.P.A. and the C.C.C.

STEARNER, Alice P. *A Course of Study in Radio Appreciation.* New York. Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc. 1501 Broadway. 1941. 36 pp. \$1.00. Reprints from *Group Discussion Guides* of November 1940 to October 1941. Contains an outline of 22 units together with ten general objectives and an introduction to the courses.

Summer Study for School Groups. University, Alabama. University of Alabama. 1941. 52 pp. A report of the six-weeks working conference of teachers at the University of Alabama Summer School in co-operation with the Southern Association study of secondary schools and colleges.

Teacher Supply and Demand: A Program of Action—by the N.E.A. committee on Supply, Preparation, and Certification of Teachers, Washington, D. C., 1941. 39 pp. 25c. Presents a platform of principles and outlines a plan of attack upon maladjustments with respect to supply and demand in the teaching profession. An extremely timely publication every school administrator should have.

Techniques. Fourth Edition. Brooklyn: The Higgins Ink Company, 1942. 38 pp. 50c. Contains educational pictures and technical descriptions of the many art purposes for which ink is used. In 1927 they issued the first collection of this information in booklet form. Some of America's foremost artists contributed sketches for reproduction in this and subsequent numbers of *Techniques*. The present fourth edition is larger and more informative than any previous edition. The book is divided into four sections, namely: "Instructional," "Techniques for Reproduction," "Examples of Scholastic Work," and "Examples of Professional Work." The company's policy for distributing *Techniques* is to send one copy free of charge to each instructor of art who requests a copy on school stationery. All others must pay 50c per copy. Amateur artists will welcome the wealth of information contained in this pamphlet.

TERMAN, LEWIS M., and McNEMAR, QUINN. *Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability: Forms C and D.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1942. Per package of 25, net, \$1.20; Specimen Set price per copy, postpaid, \$0.20. The extensive use of the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability is the best evidence of the validity of this instrument as a measure of mental ability. Now the publishers announce a revision of this test. The validity of the items composing the new test has been insured by determining the correlation of each item with total score. As was the case with the earlier Forms A and B, Forms C and D are designed for use in Grades 7-12 and with college freshmen. The working time of 40 minutes is generous.

UNGER, N. E., et al. *National Defense and the Public Library.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. 47 pp. A first hand account of what York, Pa., and Portland, Oregon, public libraries are doing in the way of library-defense activity.

VAN DOREN, MARK. *Invitation to Learning*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. 39 pp. 25c. This is a series of informal discussions of the world's great books, broadcast Sunday mornings, 11:30 to 12:00 (New York Time), over the coast-to-coast network of the Columbia Broadcasting System. This guide is for the 29 programs from November through May.

Vocational Training in War Time, by the Conference Committee of the American Association of School Administrators and the Committee on Education of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Washington, D. C.: Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1942. 35 pp. A handbook outlining joint action by educators and businessmen to expedite job training essential to war production. Has information on basic types of training.

WHEELING, K. E. and HILSON, J. A. *Audio-Visual Materials for Junior and Senior High School Reading*. Chicago, Ill. The H. W. Wilson Co. 1941. 98 pp. A recent selection of motion pictures, postcards, pictures, film strips and slides, records, bibliographical and biographical material is outlined as supplementary material for the study of 76 writers ranging from biblical personalities to President Franklin D. Roosevelt, including Nathaniel Hawthorne, Anne Morrow Lindbergh, and Stephen Foster.

The Whole Round World. New York City. League of Nations Association, 8 West 40th Street. 1941. 32 pp. 10c. An illustrated pamphlet and designed especially for pupils of the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades. Written in simple language, it reviews the economic and social interdependence of the modern world and the resulting need for world government.

WILGUS, A. C. and KEESEY, T. J. *Spanish-American Vocabulary*. Washington, D. C. Educational Research Bureau, 1321 M Street, N. W. 1942, 24 pp. 10c. Presents for traveler use Spanish words for common everyday English words. Classified topically with English equivalents first.

WILLIAMS, C. S. and STUDEBAKER, J. W. *The Ways of Dictatorship*. New York, Row, Peterson & Co. 1941. 96 pp. 48c. 25% discount on five or more copies. From every standpoint — timelessness, authorship, authenticity, educational value — this book merits attention. The purpose of the book is to help the reader understand the ways of modern, totalitarian dictatorships. Because our people, in general, take democratic living for granted and find it difficult to visualize life under a dictatorship, special emphasis is placed on near-at-hand situations.

WRIGHTSTONE, J. W. *Appraisal of Growth in Reading*. New York: Board of Education, 1941. 42 pp. This is the second of the series of Educational Research Bulletins on reading instruction prepared by the Bureau of References, Research, and Statistics. The first, issued in September of the current year, was devoted to a discussion of individualization of instruction in reading. This bulletin is concerned with means and methods of measuring abilities and growth of pupils in the various phases of reading.

Your Job Is Your Future—A Program of Courses Offered in the Vocational Schools. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The Board of Public Education, 1941. 80 pp. Describes to parents, teachers, counselors, and pupils the offerings and opportunities in the day vocational schools, to the end that boys and girls may be assisted in the careful selection of vocations and in decision upon plans for efficient preparation for employment. It also treats of the facilities in the vocational schools for the upgrading or retraining of older persons who need additional training in order to find new or better jobs.

Plan to be in Denver
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June 29 and 30, 1942.

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS Calendar

April 25-May 2

25-May 2

National Boys and Girls Week. Write to National Boys and Girls Week Committee, 35 E. Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill., for *Manual of Suggestions* and other literature.

May

1 Child Health Day. The aim is to have all school pupils immunized against smallpox and diphtheria. For information write to the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.
1-2 Annual meeting of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. Headquarters: Mayflower Hotel.
2-9 Eighth annual meeting of the Pan-American Child Congress, Washington, D.C.
3-7 Annual meeting of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, San Antonio, Texas.
3-10 National and Inter-American Music Week. Information can be obtained from Music Week Committee, 45 West 45th Street New York City.
4-6 Annual meeting of the Institute for Education by Radio, Columbus, Ohio, Headquarters, Deshler-Wallick Hotel.
10 Mothers' Day.
11-13 Annual meeting of the American Association for Adult Education, West Point, N.Y.
17 CITIZENSHIP RECOGNITION DAY.
18-20 National University Extension Association. Nittony Lion Hotel, State College, Pa.

June

21-25 Annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Boston, Mass.
22-27 Sixty-fourth annual Conference of the American Library Association, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
26-27 The Ninth Annual Conference on Business Education, University of Chicago.

28-July 2

Summer Convention of the National Education Association, Denver, Colorado.

29-July 2

Twenty-first annual conference on printing education, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

July

16-18 Business Education Conference. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

August

10-15 Midwest Conference for the Social Studies. East Bay Camp, Lake Bloomington, Illinois.

AND DON'T FORGET YOUR OWN ASSOCIATIONS ANNUAL SUMMER CONVENTION IN DENVER, COLORADO, JUNE 29-30.

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"In the revision of their vocational programs, schools can obtain much of the needed information by making follow-up studies of pupils who have left the schools in recent years. Such studies not only reveal current facts but have a certain predictive value. There is no substitute for follow-up studies organized on the basis of individual schools, since every school population has its own characteristic vocational outlets which ought to be determined as a basis for curriculum planning."

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has developed THE OCCUPATIONAL FOLLOW-UP AND ADJUSTMENT-SERVICE PLAN to meet the specific need stated above. Are you using it?

Do you want some suggestions on how the plan can be used for curriculum planning? Write to

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National Association of Secondary-School Principals
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N. W. WASHINGTON, D. C.

By the Committee on Occupational Adjustment
EDWARD LANDY, Chairman



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Naples High School,
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Lindley Junior High School,
Greensboro, North Carolina.

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Minot, North Dakota.

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Blackout

A ruddy drop of sun
Slowly sliding
Hits the rim
Of the earth and spreads
Its lonely brilliance
In long sad streaks of beauty
On a corner of the sky
As splashing oil on water
Trails ribbons on the waves.

Night closes
Her deep blue blinds
Then suddenly alarmed
Draws blackout curtains
One by one,
Leaving the western shades
Till last.

Slyly
Truant stars peer through
On the blacked out world.

Constance Lager
Newton High School
Newtonville, Massachusetts